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ABSTRACT

Nonformal approaches to primary education in developing countries are described in detail in the hope that the discussion will benefit decision makers and planners confronting situations marked by mass rural illiteracy, urban marginalization, employment of young children, and ethnic and cultural differences between minorities and the majority society. Case studies from Brazil, China, India, and Venezuela are supplemented by an introduction and synthesis and a concluding summary of the findings. Additional material describes examples of special projects for out-of-school children in Colombia, Indonesia, and the Philippines. (RH)

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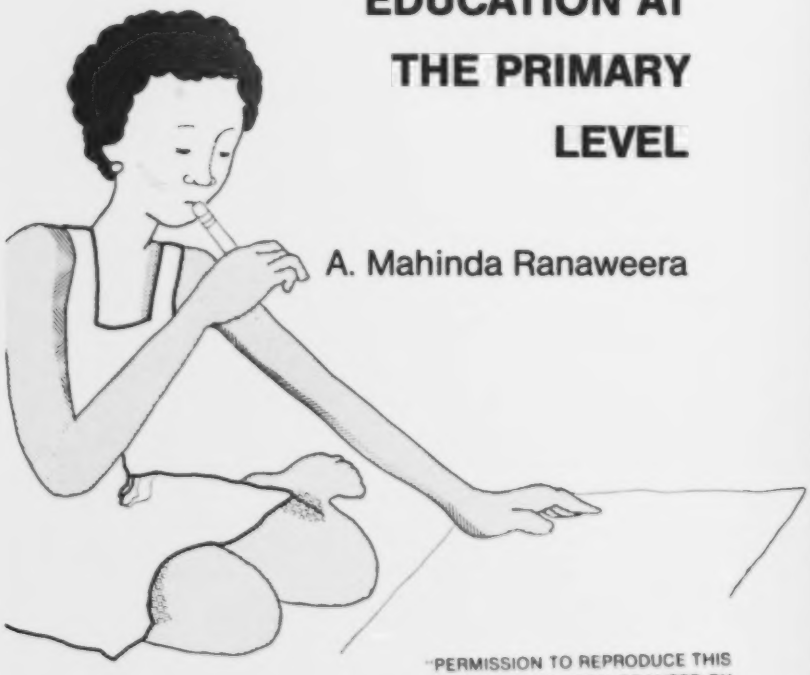

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FOREWORD

The Universalization of Primary Education (UPE) is an immediate world target. It is at the same time clear that an expansion of networks of formal schools cannot in the foreseeable future reach all those who are in need of education at the primary level. At the date of writing, there are estimated to be over 100 million children aged 6 - 11 out of school throughout the world, to which figure should be added the number of adolescents and young adults who either never attended school or dropped out prematurely before attaining a basic level of education.

UPE is inextricably linked to the eradication of illiteracy. The Unesco Institute for Education (UIE) has since 1980 carried out several research projects on literacy, post-literacy and continuing education. From the conferences and seminars associated with these, it has become apparent that the completion of primary education is a prerequisite for the successful retention of literacy. It was therefore decided to conduct a research project on nonformal approaches to education at the primary level.

These investigations were carried out in the context of UIE's commitment since 1972 to the study of policies and practices of lifelong education. In this monograph we are concerned with the initial stage of organized learning, which provides not only the skills associated with literacy but also the foundation for continuing education in later life through formal and nonformal institutions. The presentation of nonformal approaches made here also takes cognizance of the worldwide effort being made by Unesco and other bodies to promote Basic Education for All. A part of this effort is the reassessment of the provision of primary education.

The UIE project on nonformal approaches began with a preliminary survey to identify countries where non-conventional approaches were being tried out. A planning meeting

was then held in 1986, followed by two review meetings in 1987 and 1988, at which the case studies contained in this monograph were analysed. It is our intention and our hope that they, and the accompanying synthesis and conclusion, will be of direct benefit to decision makers and planners who need to consider new nonformal approaches or to strengthen existing programmes, particularly where they are confronting situations marked by mass rural illiteracy, urban marginalization, occupational employment of young children, and ethnic or cultural differences between minorities and the majority society.

This monograph is the outcome of a first phase in UIE's research in the field of nonformal alternatives for primary education, in which 18 countries have so far taken part. In connection with the monograph I should like to express my profoundest gratitude to all the authors named in the list of contents who have contributed case studies. Sections of an interim report, which has been incorporated into the present synthesis, were also prepared in 1988 by Prof. Savitri J. Shahani (India), Mr. S.M.D. Perera (Sri Lanka), Mrs. Elizabeth S. Masiga (Kenya), Dr. Gloria Z. Lasam (the Pilippines) and Prof. Abdel Fattah Galal (Egypt). To all of them we are indebted. I express my thanks to Dr. Ravindra H. Dave, the previous Director of UIE, for taking the initiative of launching this study. I also thank Mr. Peter Sutton, who edited the final text, and Ms. Wilma Gramkow, who prepared the typescript. Finally, I thank most warmly my colleague at UIE, Mr. A. Mahinda Ranaweera, who has coordinated the project and prepared this monograph.

Paul Bélanger
Director
Unesco Institute for Education

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND SYNTHESIS

by

A. Mahinda Ranaweera

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Hopes and Aspirations

There has been an increasing concern the world over for the improvement of the quality of life of the people and for the achievement of a better life for both individuals and their collectives through education. As a corollary to this concern, various measures have been taken in many countries to implement policies for the democratization of educational opportunities and the recognition of education as a basic human right. Furthermore, education is also seen as a means both of emancipating people from the ill effects of colonialism, ignorance, poverty, exploitation and other socio-political disadvantages, and of enabling them to participate actively in the mainstream of life at the local and national levels. The concept of lifelong education has been developed as the guiding principle for action directed to the achievement of this aim. The primary level (or initial level) of education is considered to be a foundation stage of the continuous process of lifelong education and is deemed to be essential for *all* as the basis for further education throughout life. This has been a major concern of Unesco and through its Major Programme II, Education for All, attempts are being made on a global scale to promote general access to education, to eradicate illiteracy and to provide a satisfactory level of initial education to all. Studies on various aspects of literacy, post-literacy and continuing education programmes in developing countries have shown that the universalization of primary education (UPE) and completion of primary education are important prerequisites for the successful elimination of illiteracy which, in turn, is an essential first step for the achievement of the goals of lifelong education.

1.2 The Problem and the Need

The link between illiteracy and the failure to achieve UPE is well established. Illiterate parents lack the deep commitment and motivation to enrol their children in schools and to ensure that they remain there to complete at least the elementary stage. Studies have indicated that a high adult literacy rate of about 70 per cent is the critical threshold for achieving UPE in developing countries. Failure of UPE leads to an increase in the adult illiteracy rate. Hence, illiteracy and failure of UPE thrive on each other and constitute a vicious circle.

In their efforts to achieve the goals of the Major Programme, Education for All, many countries have focused their attention on three important aspects of their educational activities, viz., expansion and strengthening of the formal school system; development of adult literacy programmes; and exploration of the potential of nonformal modalities.

It has been recognized that attempts made so far to fulfil the basic task of achieving the target of UPE and completion of primary education through the expansion and strengthening of the formal school system have not brought effective returns in many developing countries. According to available statistics, there are about 188 million school-aged children in the world who are not enrolled in school. Even in the case of those who are enrolled, there still exists the phenomenon of early drop-outs, who do not acquire even the minimum literacy skills needed to lead a fruitful life. There is also the problem of the insufficient achievement of those who pass through the system. In this context, suitable measures should be taken to ensure that drop-outs from the formal school need not necessarily be drop-outs from the learning system that should be in existence in all societies. Hence, there is a need to search for nonformal and alternative approaches, structures and pertinent curricula to supplement and complement the efforts made through the formal school system. Preliminary studies made in this field suggest that such approaches are not yet adopted in some countries which need them, and that they are weak and inadequate even in those countries where such programmes are being implemented. Therefore, there exists an urgent need to identify such approaches, develop them and implement

them in order to achieve the targets set for the universalization of primary education.

1.3 Background to the UIE Project

UIE had carried out some preliminary work related to innovations and experiments in the primary education curriculum. The present study was a more broad-based one which attempted to understand the conceptual aspects and practical considerations that arise with regard to the articulation and linkage of formal and nonformal or non-conventional structures that may provide primary level education.

In the recent past, the formal school system in both developed and developing countries has come under heavy criticism. A common theme stressed by most critics was the need to get away from systems rigidly tied to examinations and credits to more flexible, learner-oriented alternative structures. A considerable amount of thinking has recently gone into redefining the boundaries of education in space and time. It is recognized that not all learning takes place in schools and that we should be concerned with the total configuration of educational opportunities and institutions, both formal and nonformal, available in our societies.

From a practical point of view, it has been found that though considerable budgetary allocations are being made for primary education in the formal system, the returns are not commensurate with the magnitude of the investment. The human and material resources at the disposal of the formal system are not fully utilized and could be made available through nonformal channels to a wider clientele.

1.3.1 *Aims and Objectives*

More specifically, the aims of the UIE study may be stated as follows:

- to review and analyse the current situation and the experiences of participants' and other countries relevant to developing alternative approaches to primary level education;

- to develop a better understanding of the ways and means of accelerating the process of UPE by adopting non-conventional methods and structures;

- to provide insights into the procedures of achieving the desired quality of education through alternative learning systems;

- to examine the provisions and procedures that need to be worked out to ensure functional linkage and articulation between formal and non-conventional practices, including the use of resources.

It was expected that the study would lead to the identification of the various strategies adopted in developing countries to link the formal and nonformal structures, and to the adoption of appropriate content and methods of learning for effective primary level education. The study would also throw some light on problems of acceptance, accreditation and equivalence with the conventional system.

1.3.2 *The Target Groups*

Nonformal and alternative approaches to education at the primary level are directed mainly towards the following categories of learners:

- children and young people who are not enrolled in school;

- early school leavers who have not completed the primary education cycle;

- special population groups identified by their particular situation and environment (e.g., girls, disadvantaged groups, nomads, etc.)

Adults who have been deprived of primary education were not totally excluded.

1.4 The Structure of the Study

As preparatory work, a preliminary survey was carried out to identify some countries where work related to the

adoption of non-conventional approaches to primary education were being tried out. Key persons from five such countries, Brazil, India, the People's Republic of China, Venezuela and Zambia, were invited to a meeting in June 1986 to share and review the experiences from different countries. Based on a design framework developed at this meeting, national case studies were carried out in these five countries. These national case studies were examined at a review meeting held in May 1987. Another international meeting was held in September 1988, in which 14 specialists from as many countries shared their experiences of non-conventional approaches to primary level education for out-of-school children and focused their attention on the following aspects:

- The target population - Who are they? What are their characteristics? Why are they not in school?

- Alternative non-conventional arrangements/structures to meet their educational needs;

- Need-based content/appropriate curriculum;

- The learning-teaching situation - methods, materials, use of media;

- Monitoring and evaluation (achievement and impact);

- Teachers/facilitators of learning and related aspects.

The case studies, reports of innovative projects from some participating countries and experiences and insights that emerged during the discussions provided a substantial amount of information on the present practices, problems and issues relating to this field.

The following sections of this chapter present a brief synthesis of the main findings of the study. Chapters 2-5 contain condensed versions of four case studies prepared under the project, while chapter 6 presents experiences drawn from three further countries and chapter 7 offers a brief summary of the overall findings.

2. THE CLIENTELE

2.1 Introduction

Foremost among the earliest attempts to achieve the targets of UPE was the quantitative expansion of the primary school sector, in particular the opening of new schools within reasonable access to all children. Later experience showed that this effort brought satisfactory results up to a certain level of enrolment, but that a substantial proportion of children continued to remain outside school for various reasons. Despite the phenomenal expansion, some areas were still not served by schools. In some areas, schools were not found within easy access due to difficult geographical conditions (e.g., isolated islands, mountainous regions). Some children were prevented from attending school for various socio-economic reasons such as poverty and social taboos. In certain countries, sections of the population such as girls, children of nomadic tribes and migrant workers had special problems in participating in primary education.

The existence of sizeable numbers of children who are unable to participate in the formal system in several countries creates a demand for alternatives to the formal school system. In order to tackle the problem of out-of-school children, it is necessary to establish: 1) the general, social, economic and cultural characteristics of these children in relation to the countries in which they are located and as a category across various countries; and 2) the magnitude of the problem.

The common characteristics of these children across countries have been described as follows: they are under 15 years of age and include both children who were never enrolled in school and those who have dropped out; they are found mostly in rural areas and in urban slums, but children of special groups such as nomadic tribes, migrant workers and fishermen are also included; economically speaking they come from underdeveloped and underprivileged sectors of the population and from minorities and isolated communities.

The substantive details of the characteristics of out-of-school children vary from country to country. It is possible to make a sub-classification of countries according to

the scale of the problem. There is a considerable difference between countries that have almost 90% of all children of school-going age enrolled in schools, and those where there is a much larger percentage of non-school-goers and where the problem cannot be understood without reference to the political, social and economic situation.

These countries may be classified into two broad categories. The first are agrarian societies with masses of rural poor. In this group provision for education needs to be linked with problems of development, and governments tend to play a major role in developing nonformal education programmes. In the second category, marginal groups are excluded from the formal system. These, for example, may be the aboriginal inhabitants who have become a cultural minority in their native territories, as in Latin America or the Philippines. The need for Nonformal Education here is to work within a framework of cultural pluralism. Voluntary organizations rather than governments have been active in these countries.

2.2 Target Groups in Different Countries

A summary of the characteristics of the target groups in the countries that were covered by the project is given below.

Bangladesh - There is a 60% enrolment of children, but with drop-outs, 70% of children of school-going age are out of school. Almost 70% of the population are landless, and poor. Other sections of the population who are also poor are slum dwellers, labourers, and small shopkeepers. This means that children are expected to work and bring in money for the family; or they have to help with the housework. In addition, motivation for education is low. 85% of the total population is rural, and there are tribal and nomadic communities as well. But apart from these extraneous factors, there are direct educational problems which also keep children out of school. Schools are often too far away, or have inconvenient timings, have irrelevant curricula, and present communication problems for some children. Teachers lack motivation; poor students get no financial assistance; and girls are kept out of school because of conservatism. Examinations cause fear and discouragement.

Brazil - In 1985, about 30% of children in the age group 7-14 were not enrolled. In 1980 some 539,000 fourteen-year-olds were illiterate and joined the population of illiterate adults, thereby increasing the illiteracy rate by 2.8%. There is little evidence that this situation has changed much since 1980. A high rate of drop-out and failure also adds to the number of those who do not complete primary education. In general, the out-of-school or non-school-going population is concentrated in the less developed states of the Federation, in rural zones and in the suburbs of the larger cities.

China - In 1985, the enrolment ratio of primary-school-aged children had reached 95%, which is an increase of 75% compared to 1949. However, about 5% of the population is still out of school. They are mainly in the economically underdeveloped areas where one fourth of the nation's population lives. These are the mountainous areas, border areas, pasture lands and areas of national minorities.

Colombia - About 12% of children of school-going age are out of school. They consist of cultural minorities such as blacks and Indians, and of peasants. The problem of educating them is one of cultural domination, although the official policy is one of cultural pluralism. There is a need to build up their self-esteem and cultural autonomy and to use their own non-conventional knowledge. Much of the dropping out can be ascribed to an irrelevant curriculum that is prescribed by a different and dominant culture and which is unrelated to daily life.

Egypt - Special groups such as the Bedouin and fishermen are out of the formal system. So, too, are the rural people and urban poor in small pockets.

Ethiopia - In 1974, only 15% of children were in primary schools. Fourteen years later, after a major political change, participation had gone up to 35% - still very far short of UPE. Education is therefore embedded in the general problem of underdevelopment, and political action has been a vital ingredient in educational change. Ethiopia also has the problem of special groups such as nomadic cattlemen and remote mountain communities, who can only be covered by some form of non-formal education.

India - In 1980-81, 83% of the total population in the age-group 6 to 11 years were in primary school, as compared to 42% in 1950-51. Estimates for 1984-85 are well over 90%. But literacy for the total population in the 1981 census was 47% for males and 25% for females (36% overall). Literacy rates vary sharply from a high of 70% in Kerala to 24% in Rajasthan and 21% in Arunachal Pradesh, which has a large tribal population. The UPE Action Research Project in Pune district shows that children who are out of school 1) come from poor, unskilled and illiterate families; 2) suffer under social handicaps, as in the case of girls; and 3) are working.

Indonesia - The literacy rate is quite high at 71%, while 97% of school-age-children are in school. Only 5% of these drop out of primary school. Of the 3% not enrolled at all, 1% are in remote areas, 1% are working children, and 1% are physically or mentally handicapped. The first group live in mountains and islands where schools are not available. Some among this group have a cultural bias against education. Nomadic tribes are also to be found here. The second group are out of school because of poverty and the need to earn or help their parents at home. Among them are the homeless poor in the cities, who work as scrap collectors or beg. The third require special education and therefore it is difficult for them to participate either in formal schooling or nonformal education.

Kenya - There is a high rate of 97% enrolment while adult literacy is 80%. Nonformal education is not popular nor is it a major issue. The Basic Education programme is run by NGOs supported by the government. It is aimed at the street children, to keep them from petty crime. They come from families which are very poor, or have illiterate parents, or have a single parent, or are orphans. The government also runs Youth Centres for drop-outs and non-enrolled children.

Liberia - From 1986, a Compulsory Education Law has been in force and about 97% of the age-group are in school. The illiteracy rate in 1988 was about 65%. There is a heavy migration of people from rural areas to cities, which has caused overcrowding in schools with high rates of dropping out. These drop-outs usually take to the streets. The government has intervened with a policy of UPE by establishing day care centres in the cities to look after these children while

their parents work. A large minority consisting of Muslims have kept out of missionary schools. The government is trying to meet their demands for Arabic education by setting up combined English/Arabic schools.

Mexico - There are several Indian groups engaged in agriculture who are poor. They migrate to the cities, where they supply indispensable manpower but where they are severely exploited by employers. They number almost 10 million. Their children are often out of school. Since 1942, the official policy has been to accept bilingualism and cultural pluralism in education, but in actual practice mainly Spanish is used.

Nepal - Literacy rates are very low with 18% female literacy and 52% for males. There is a three-decade-old programme for non-formal education, linked to rural development, which has been successful.

Pakistan - Participation is below 50% and there is a drop-out rate of 50% from primary education. The rural-urban difference is very marked with both low participation and high drop-out rates in the rural areas. There is considerable participation by religious minorities except scheduled castes. Generally, tribals, nomadic groups, girls, and the poor keep away from formal schools. The Nai Roshni schools are an experiment in giving condensed two-year-courses for the out-of-school population in the 10 to 14 age-group.

The Philippines - There are several ethnic minorities and tribal groups living on islands and in the mountains. They suffer economically because of pressure on the land by lowlanders, and politically because they are caught between the army and the subversive groups. Culturally, they are hostile to "civilized" life. Whole families move between villages and farms in search of work, and can move from village to jungle if under external pressure. No proper census data is available about them because they are so difficult to locate. They could number about one million in just one region.

Sri Lanka - Major factors in creating a large out-of-school population are poverty and situations of deprivation. Migration of parents to the Gulf and the ethnic conflict have added large numbers to this group. Gulf migration has

taken many women out as housekeepers, maids, etc. The children they have left behind tend to keep away from school. And the ethnic conflict in the northern and eastern districts has caused physical destruction of schools and displacement of people. UNHCR has assisted with funds for refugees returning to their homes from India or from camps, and for the development of nonformal education programmes.

Other target groups are the slum dwellers of cities, destitute and delinquent children, abandoned and exploited children, and the disabled and handicapped. The out-of-school group is only 8 to 10%, but drop-outs before the end of the primary cycle amount to about 20%. As nonformal education looks after only 6 to 7% among these, over a period of time the proportion of adult illiterates increases. Consequently, Sri Lanka has seen a fall from its literacy rate of 90%.

Syria - Participation in the formal system is high with 96.2% of boys and 77.5% of girls in school in 1982. This gives an average of 86.85%. By 1984 this had risen to 87%, when 332,181 children out of 388,232 were enrolled. Primary education is compulsory for 6 to 12-year-olds, and it is being proposed that the age limit for compulsory schooling be raised to 15 years.

Zambia - The enrolment ratio at the primary school level for the entire country was 84% in 1980. But the figure varies widely from province to province.

Some common features observed across all these countries are that the children who are denied schooling come from rural areas, from urban slums, and from minorities and marginal groups who are either geographically and economically isolated, culturally isolated or both. In some countries, girls can be included as one of the categories.

3. ALTERNATIVE STRUCTURES

3.1 Introduction

The traditional approach to education depends almost exclusively on formal structures for planning, implementing and managing educational programmes. The formal school system, which is the main feature of this approach, is already well established in most countries. These formal structures manage an extensive and almost universal schooling system along with other institutionalized forms of formal education. Traditional approaches are characterized by the application of power and control over the curriculum, methodology, institutional structures and patterns of school-community relationships. They tend to be rigid, differentiating and hierarchical in character and tend to transmit the attitudes, values and culture of the dominant class. Hence, they have the inherent weakness of adversely affecting the aspirations and needs of deprived or impoverished groups in their societies. Most developing countries, even after gaining independence, continued to base their educational systems on traditional approaches and models in vogue in the industrialized countries. In recent times, however, as situations in most countries have changed with the development of egalitarian concepts, and the acceptance of education as a basic human right, it has become clear that the needs of education for all could not be effectively met through traditional approaches and formal structures alone. Many countries have therefore made attempts to set up alternative non-conventional education structures to cater to the educational needs of non-school-goers, early school leavers and even to meet the needs of adults as well as special groups whose education is incomplete.

Developing countries realized the need to invest in the development of human resources as a priority measure, and thereby arose the development of the alternative structures set up by most countries as a part of their educational programme to complement the formal systems. The new Nonformal Education (NFE) structures, while meeting the educational needs of those not reached by formal systems, had also to incorporate the special needs of the poor and deprived. There were, moreover, special groups such as those in rehabilitation camps, ethnic minorities, etc. coming

within the broad category outside the formal system. The NFE systems were therefore required to have the qualities of flexibility and adaptability. They should be able to produce quick results, and be need-based, innovative and economical. The systems had to adopt innovative teaching/learning methods to overcome the weaknesses of the traditional approaches.

Alternative approaches should attempt to reduce the power and control exercised by those who want to maintain the traditional formal system as a superior system and treat the nonformal structures as inferior substitutes. This becomes possible only if they adopt a pedagogical model in which:

- the learners themselves participate in the planning and organization of the educational process (e.g., in developing the curriculum, criteria and process of evaluation);

- the pedagogical process responds to the interest, pacing and timing of the learners;

- the community participates in the instructional process as well as the social organization of the learning centres; and

- the culture of the learners and the non-conventional knowledge existing in their environment is recognized and integrated into the curriculum and learning experiences.

Although in general there is central direction, many countries have resorted to the target communities themselves for determining the form and manner in which their own educational programmes are to be designed and subsequently run. Another noticeable feature in NFE structures is the need for close linkage and intermeshing with existing formal systems. In fact, there is a need for parallel structures or arrangements for the adaptation of formal systems to situations of deprivation and poverty. The structures and programmes launched both by formal and nonformal systems should proceed hand in hand and complement one another.

Most countries reported on NFE structures within their national systems for the delivery of educational programmes.

Some countries such as China, India, Indonesia and Nepal have well organized extensive alternative nonformal systems incorporating a variety of programmes. Others such as Bangladesh, Egypt, Ethiopia, Pakistan and Zambia have concentrated more on literacy programmes as their main alternative programmes to meet the urgent needs of illiterates among their people. Countries such as Kenya, Liberia, the Philippines, Sri Lanka and Syria are now organizing their own innovative approaches to meet the needs of their small yet critically important groups of illiterates and out-of-school children, while in countries such as Brazil, Colombia, Mexico and Venezuela alternative structures are being developed both by the State and by active voluntary organizations to meet the special social situations of groups not reached or served by existing formal schooling systems.

Several countries report an uphill task in overcoming the resistance encountered in building up alternative structures, since the traditional formal structures which serve the dominant power systems of their societies are well protected and controlled by influential groups of vested interests. Much research and experimentation is therefore needed to support these programmes. There is also a need to build up awareness among decision makers and the people in general about the capability and suitability of nonformal structures as a parallel alternative to the formal systems.

The various countries have reported many innovative features, which are briefly discussed below.

3.2 Summary of Structures found in the Different Countries

Bangladesh has a system of community learning centres (Satellite Schools) where out-of-school children are encouraged to follow classes. Teachers are appointed by the community and the salary paid by them. Schools for child labourers are also being set up in industrial areas. A Mass Education Programme is being devised for the semi-literates (11-45 years) under which centres are being set up in about 30,000 villages. A National Literacy Campaign is being launched by the Ministry of Education. The intention is to achieve 60% literacy by 1990. Special arrangements are available for girls who are unable to attend the formal schools.

Brazil - Educational action to provide first level schooling for those who have had no access to schools is implemented through State and/or County Education Secretariats, private educational institutions and the National Foundation for Youth and Adult Education (EDUCAR), an agency of the Ministry of Education which has replaced the former MOBRAL foundation. One of the functions of MOBRAL was to cooperate and participate in the efforts made by state or county educational systems in providing out-of-school education to those between 7 and 14 years of age. For this purpose, specific projects were developed to reinforce the actions of the Ministry of Education in the federal National Literacy Programme according to the requirements identified by the local system.

China - Over 200,000 nonformal 'teaching stations' function all over the country. These consist of morning classes, mid-day study classes, night study classes, every-other-day classes, pasture coaching classes, break-time coaching classes (for peasants' children), mobile classes, multi-grade classes, special classes for children in fishing communities, and boarding schools in border areas (for minorities and the children of fishermen). These teaching stations conduct their classes in a flexible manner at convenient times and locations to suit the special circumstances of the learners.

In *Colombia* and *Mexico* many alternative structures provide literacy to illiterate adults. An important feature is that the curricular content is decided by the participants along with their instructors and members of the community. The instructors themselves are selected by the community or the groups of learners. In Colombia alternative structures set up by non-governmental organizations are reported to be very successful. The National Office of Education has set up its own programmes. Many state-sponsored organizations such as INRAVISION (National Radio and TV), INCORA (Institute for Agrarian Reform), and ICBF (Institute of Family Welfare) have educational programmes to support low income families, workers and peasants. The governments of both countries have incorporated NFE as a part of their educational system, but centralized government programmes have achieved limited success. These programmes are unable to link up closely with the cultural needs of the communities. In Colombia, programmes at elementary level have also been launched for working children

and these programmes are successfully run by organizations such as the Jesuits and other private agencies.

Egypt proposes a "one-class" school for continuing education. This is a new method being studied to achieve full enrolment and reduce drop-out from the primary school, thereby as a long-term objective to eliminate illiteracy. The above programme reflects an age-old Egyptian system of education known as "Kahab", which is widespread in cities and villages. This programme is supervised now by the Ministry of Education as well.

Ethiopia reports on its National Literacy Campaign, which is an extensive programme for 8 to 49-year-old illiterates. It has run for nine years, and 20.4 million people have benefited. The programme has helped to reduce illiteracy from 93% to 29%. Teachers are mainly volunteers. The literacy programme is run for 288 hours, with a post-literacy programme of 108 hours. Ethiopia also reports a "villagization" programme. Here villages are brought together to help in schooling. Flexible schedules are maintained so that if the children have to work in the morning they attend school in the evenings.

India - The State Governments have set up nonformal education centres with assistance from the Central Government as an alternative to the formal school system. The educational design, which is highly flexible, envisages that the curriculum of five years at the primary stage should be condensed into a two year curriculum, in which the learners progress at their own pace. The location of the centre is any convenient place in the community: it could be a school or a building made available by the community or even the house of the instructor. A common model is the part-time evening class, with a paid instructor, the provision of basic facilities and a supervisory scheme. Since girls constitute the largest single group of out-of-school children and young people, centres exclusively for girls have been set up.

Many states have implemented their own programmes. The Indian Institute of Education at Pune has conducted an action research project in Maharashtra State, which provides a basic education through part-time evening classes to 9 to 14-year-olds.

The Government of *Indonesia* has since 1969 developed a NFE section with its central office in Jakarta. It functions under a Director-General of Education with provincial, district, sub-district and village-level structures, to support extensive provision. Some of the main NFE programmes for out-of-school groups are:

- Learning Groups - The aim is to eradicate illiteracy among the population aged 7 to 44 through learning activities in groups of five to ten members.

- Income Generating Learning Groups - Here a small group engages in an income generating activity.

- Magang - An apprenticeship programme. Here young people who have dropped out learn various trades as apprentices.

- Classes conducted by voluntary and religious organizations for primary level pupils under NFE conditions.

Kenya has a three-year structure equivalent to eight years of formal schooling. Any facility available is used to conduct these classes for those out of school. The subjects covered include literacy, numeracy and business skills as well as practical skills such as carpentry and masonry.

Liberia uses a community building to establish a school for those who leave school or have no access to formal schooling. They also use city buildings as day care centres as well as to provide schooling for those dropped out of formal schools.

Mexico has a three-tier structure. The first phase of 3-6 months provides literacy in the native tongue; in the second phase of 6 months they learn spoken Spanish and in the third phase, reading and writing skills in their mother tongue.

Nepal is another country which has an established NFE structure within the Ministry of Education. Many schemes have been launched to assist illiterates and the out-of-school population. Many projects, such as the "Setti" project, function with assistance from international organizations.

Pakistan has established a network of Nai Roshni ('new light' in Urdu) classes for young illiterates. These are aimed specifically at children over ten who have missed primary schooling. The age range is relaxed to accommodate young adults, especially girls, who have missed school. Daily classes of three hours' duration are held in the afternoons in government primary schools. The facilities available in those schools are also at the disposal of this nonformal scheme. This scheme condenses the normal five-year primary course into two years and aims at equipping the children with the basic literacy and numeracy skills to qualify them for secondary education.

The Philippines report on a Mobile Tent School, a successful programme for out-of-school children. This is an example of a programme conducted under PRODED (Programme of Decentralized Educational Development) of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports. These tent schools provide education to a mobile ethnic minority. Children who attend schools are provided with dormitories so that they can stay close to the school. The National Government has developed many NFE programmes under its community education section and also under the PRODED programme.

Sri Lanka has established two main structures under its NFE programme for out-of-school children. Learning Activity Centres are set up in distant areas where there is difficulty of access to normal schools. Literacy Centres are set up in deprived low income areas where there are out-of-school children. Arrangements are now being made jointly with the Urban Development Authority, to set up Community Schools (Open Schools) in deprived environments such as slum and low income areas where the population density is high. Classes are normally held in the evenings and a special curriculum is provided. Teachers in the NFE programme are paid. NFE field functionaries, and Adult Education Officers do field supervision.

In *Syria* the problem of out-of-school children and illiterates exists although it is not serious at present. Parents are exposed to State sanction if they do not send their young to an educational institution. Organizations such as the Women's Organizations and Workers' Unions are expected to assist the government by providing facilities such as evening schools to provide specialized training.

The Ministry of Culture has set up houses for cultural development in most villages, where training programmes on various disciplines are organized. For the distant desert areas where there are nomadic tribes a scheme for providing a travelling teacher has been introduced.

Venezuela - The adult education programme offers primary level education to the adult population aged 15 years and over who have not attended primary school or completed the primary cycle. The primary education programme consists of four continuous courses, each lasting one academic year. The participants attend night classes of two hours per day on weekdays at the Popular Culture Centres or at Centres for Cultural Extension. The national programme receives support from the autonomous institution, the National Institute for Educational Cooperation (INCE).

Zambia - The Department of Continuing Education, which is under the Ministry of General Education and Culture, is charged with the provision of nonformal education through schools for continuing education. Evening classes are conducted throughout the country using formal school buildings.

4. NEED-BASED CONTENT AND APPROPRIATE CURRICULUM

4.1 Introduction

The traditional curriculum of the formal primary school, which has been designed for a particular clientele learning in a highly structured setting, will not meet the needs of the out-of-school learners. The formal school curriculum organized according to grades and age levels of pupils attending school on a full-time basis is loaded with subject matter expected to be covered over a period of five or more years. The circumstances under which out-of-school children are expected to learn do not permit full-time daily attendance for a long period of time. Hence, the content load and the duration of the course have to be condensed. There would also be differences in the aims and objectives of the curriculum in the context of the environment, culture, needs and aspirations of the out-of-school learners. It is therefore clear that non-conventional approaches have to be adopted in de-

signing the curriculum and selecting content for these learners.

In developing a curriculum and selecting the content for out-of-school children in a nonformal setting, it is necessary first to identify the categories of the children in the target group and analyse their needs. The children will be at different levels with respect to their educational background and will be found in different environments. Some of the learners will be literate, some semi-literate and some others completely illiterate. They will also have a variety of experiences from their environment and working life. In order to make the curriculum relevant to their needs and aspirations, it should be developed by curriculum specialists working together with the teachers, learners and the local community. The curriculum will therefore take into consideration the needs of the learners, their environment, culture and level of background education.

From the analysis of the needs and context of the learners, the aims (purpose) of educational programmes for them will emerge. These aims should not be considered as static and permanent: they should be dynamic and flexible according to changing circumstances of the learners and their environment. The general aim of nonformal education programmes at the primary level for the target group under consideration may be stated as: helping out-of-school children to acquire adequate knowledge, skills and attitudes that will make them happy and useful members of society and enable them to improve their quality of life. In order to achieve this aim, the curriculum should be relevant to the environment and life of the learners. Since most of them come from disadvantaged remote rural areas, the curriculum needs to be closely related to rural life and rural transformation and development. In addition to providing the basic literacy and numeracy skills, the curriculum should aim at improving the capacities of the learners for social living in their environment and in productive work.

Based on these broad general objectives, it will be necessary to define specific objectives to cater to the needs of various categories of learners in different environments. Curriculum development has to be looked upon as a dynamic process changing with the needs and purposes of the learners.

The view is expressed by some that it is the learner and not the curriculum expert who should decide on the content of the curriculum. The role of the curriculum expert is to find out how the learners and their communities perceive their needs and work with them to develop a suitable curriculum.

In concrete terms, the curriculum for out-of-school children may be seen to consist of three main components:

(i) Literacy and numeracy skills provided through language(s) and elementary mathematics.

(ii) Social studies, which should include an understanding of the environment and its development, civic rights and responsibilities, the political and administrative structure of the country and its cultural heritage.

(iii) Science and technology, sufficient and appropriate for dealing with daily life problems and improving vocational capacities for enhancing their economic conditions.

4.2 Information on the Content of the Curricula of Different Countries

Bangladesh - In Bangladesh, the National Curriculum and Text Book Board is responsible for curriculum development, renewal and modification.

NGOs working in the field of nonformal education publish textbooks based on the minimum learning continuum theory. The curriculum is developed according to the needs of a given target group with the aims of changing attitudes towards life, helping children to acquire the physical, mental, social and emotional skills essential for their growth, and helping them to improve their economic condition and quality of life.

The following subjects are taught: language, basic and elementary mathematics, social science (sanitation, nutrition, health and family planning), games, social and human values, livelihood.

In the second stage, children and young adults are taught basic working skills (farming/food processing/small industrial skills) and simple vocational training (for employment in which the clients are engaged or intend to engage).

A minimum learning continuum is to be developed for out-of-school children according to their needs and the needs of society. Follow-up research on curricula may be carried out on baseline data of these children.

Brazil - A flexible alternative curriculum has been developed by specialists with the participation of the population/community concerned. It is flexible in terms of content, time, duration, place, approach, etc. The minimum contents involve reading and writing, elementary mathematical skills and basic knowledge of the physical and social world required in daily life. At the same time, the contents satisfy the prerequisites for continuing education at a higher level. There is provision for modifying the content at regional and state levels to acommodate their special needs. The development of content relating to the social, economic and cultural aspects of the learners, their characteristics, interests and needs takes place more specifically at the teacher-student interaction level.

China - The content of a typical curriculum consists of language, mathematics, science, physical education, aesthetics and moral lessons. The duration of the course is reduced to four years or 3,280 periods, which is 800 periods less than the formal teaching programme.

Colombia - The learners develop their own curriculum based on their community problems and needs as well as on topics of interest. They select content that is relevant to the problem at hand. If, for example, the problem is food production they choose topics in geography, science, agriculture and economics that will help them to improve their agricultural practices and produce adequate food for their needs.

This kind of curriculum development is particularly suitable for working children who have pressing needs that require urgent attention.

Egypt - The content of the curriculum is derived from the following subject areas: language, mathematics, humanities, science and vocational subjects.

The objective is to enable the learners to acquire literacy, basic knowledge of their environment, attitudes and values for good citizenship and vocational skills for their livelihood. The content is presented in an integrated manner rather than as distinct disciplines.

Ethiopia - In Ethiopia the content covers the following subject areas: literacy, civics, health education and co-operative education, agriculture as an optional subject, and vocational skills relevant to what is practised at the local level.

The community in the form of organized associations are involved in developing and implementing the curriculum, particularly the skill development programme.

India - The following are some of the models in use:

- The formal education model, which uses the curriculum and textbooks of the formal system in a parallel non-formal setting.

- The condensed version of the formal model, in which selected contents from several subject areas of the formal curriculum are covered in one course.

- The integrated model, in which the emphasis is on the improvement of the quality of life and themes for this purpose are identified from the formal curriculum. Instructional materials to suit these themes are designed by integrating the content in the relevant subject areas.

- The model based on needs and problems, which focuses on a thematic approach where the content is related to problems of life.

- The development model, which emphasizes developmental activities in addition to academic aspects in the content of the curriculum. There is interaction and colla-

boration with developmental agencies in developing and implementing the curriculum.

Nonformal education in the Indian State of Maharashtra, for example, is conducted over two years, divided into four terms. The first unit covers the following subjects: literacy, numeracy, games, group singing and yoga exercises. The set of reading materials is increased quantitatively and qualitatively, and in the fourth unit, the content is expanded to include the following: agriculture, science, health education, ecology, social science and aesthetic appreciation. This curriculum takes care of the total person's mental, physical, social and spiritual development. It was developed at the Institute of Education by the project team, which includes experts in education as well as social workers.

Indonesia - The curriculum is developed centrally with a deliberate rural bias based on an analysis of the clientele's basic needs and the practical experiences of extension workers. The teachers/facilitators and the clientele choose additional local contents (80% of the curriculum is developed centrally and 20% at the local level). The content is based on the following subject areas:

1) literacy: reading, writing, arithmetic

2) religious and spiritual teachings based on the belief in one God

3) family and community life

4) rights and responsibilities of citizens

5) environmental awareness

6) family welfare education

7) career/vocational orientation

8) community health

9) sports

10) music

11) gardening/agriculture/forestry

12) customs

13) language (booklets in the package number A1 - A100)

Examples of Topics:

- planting fruit trees (package 12)
- poultry (package 13)
- bee keeping (package 43)
- livestock products (package 57)
- weaving palm leaves (package 85)

Kenya - In Kenya the curriculum is centrally developed at the Institute of Education. Some teachers from the non-formal education system are invited to participate.

The subjects taught in the nonformal system are similar to those in the formal system. In the schools, however, the learners and the teachers concentrate more on the practical skills subjects such as home science, woodwork, metal work, music and art. The programme consists of four phases: in the first three the children learn the subjects taught in the regular schools and those who want to stay for another year are given intensive training in three basic skills, viz. metal work, carpentry and tailoring.

The main objective of the programme is to make the learners literate and self-reliant. At the end of the course, they should be able to find something to do for their livelihood.

Liberia - In Liberia, the objectives of elementary education are the same for both formal and nonformal education, which means that the content is also the same. The curriculum is developed centrally.

Mexico - The curriculum is based on the needs of the community. The main objective is to make the learning process

easy. The curriculum takes into account the people's local language and culture. The learners participate in curriculum development.

The Philippines - The following subjects are taught: literacy, numeracy, family and community life, health and nutrition and livelihood.

The Ministry of Education collaborates with other ministries such as the Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Health and Ministry of Manpower Development in designing and implementing the curriculum.

The objective of this education is to make out-of-school children literate and to equip them with skills for survival in the modern world.

Sri Lanka - There is a curriculum development centre for nonformal education. The subjects taught include language, environmental studies, numeracy and vocational subjects. The curriculum is centrally developed.

Venezuela - The curriculum (Study Plan) is divided into two sectors - academic and professional. The academic sector consists of knowledge in the areas of humanities, science and arts and includes language, mathematics, natural sciences and social studies. The professional sector consists of technical knowledge and vocational skills.

Zambia - There are no articulated syllabuses in the traditional sense but the learning activities fall into the following categories:

- Basic literacy - acquisition of basic reading, writing and numeracy skills;

- Functional literacy - aiming at the application of knowledge and skills to practical and vocational life. Themes and areas of learning cover agriculture, home economics, health and nutrition.

5. METHODS, MATERIALS AND MEDIA

5.1 Introduction

Several factors related to the special characteristics of the target group of learners have to be taken into consideration in selecting the appropriate methodology and materials for the learning/teaching process. Unlike the formal classroom, where all pupils are of the same age group and have similar educational backgrounds, a nonformal group (or class) will be heterogeneous with respect to age and level of education. Nonformal classes do not follow the rigid class structure of the formal system with fixed entry and exit points. There are multigrade classes and flexible entry and exit points. Also, learners are usually allowed to progress at their own pace, although the programme is compressed into a shorter period of time than the formal school programme. The rigid, teacher-dominated oppressive atmosphere that often prevails in the formal classroom and the didactic teaching methods have to be changed to suit the more flexible teaching/learning situations that are desirable in nonformal settings.

Methodologies appropriate for nonformal and non-conventional approaches should take into consideration the need for innovative strategies to shorten the learning cycle and to motivate older learners. They should also incorporate principles associated with lifelong education such as self-learning, inter-learning and self-directed learning.

5.2 Country Experiences

Acting on the realization that the didactic approach centred on the teacher and the textbook which is usually adopted in the formal school is not suitable for the learners in a nonformal setting, many countries have accepted certain general principles on which the learning/teaching methodology and strategies should be based. In general, they recognize that a learner-centred approach should be adopted with the teacher as a facilitator of learning, and with the emphasis on learning rather than teaching. The methods and materials should conform to the cultural milieu and traits of the learners and be as close as possible to real-life experiences.

The teacher/facilitator should initiate the learning process with the learners' own life experiences and organize suitable learning/teaching techniques to go further. The joint development of materials with the learners is found to be a good way of motivating them and incorporating their personal experiences into the learning/teaching process. The need to allow the learner to progress at his own rate has also been generally accepted.

Various methods of learning and teaching are applied in the countries studied. Cited were the use of teaching centres (with self-instructional materials) located in strategic areas in the various islands in Indonesia, the non-graded mobile tent school for ethnic tribes in the Philippines, the small learning groups in India and Sri Lanka, the community-based and designed methods of teaching in Colombia, the volunteers for mass literacy in Ethiopia - all of which point to non-conventional and innovative approaches to the problems of out-of-school children at the primary level.

The learning arrangements are made flexible in order to suit the convenience and needs of learners. In most countries, face-to-face instruction is the most common modality used, generally for 2-3 hours a day. Some have special types of classes such as morning study classes mid-day classes, night classes, every-other-day-classes, breaktime classes, mobile classes, teaching stations, etc. Some countries use self-learning modules and distance education techniques in addition to face-to-face instruction. Radio and TV programmes, sometimes supported by printed materials, are increasingly being used where such facilities are available. The use of indigeneous learning materials and methods such as those associated with folk songs, folk tales, games and toys, local festivals and other cultural events is recommended.

5.3 Some Suggested Guidelines

The following aspects should be taken into consideration in regard to methods and materials that are applicable to nonformal and alternative programmes:

- Methods of teaching and learning should conform to the needs of the learner and his environment and not be

based on what is dictated by outside authorities. It is incumbent on the teachers and the supervisors to know the culture and the aspirations of the people, and to develop methods and materials accordingly.

- In the case of learners who work to earn a living or supplement the income of the family, learning/teaching sessions must be made flexible and timed in such a way as not to deprive them of their source of income. Community assemblies held after work or during non-working days could be an alternative.

- Indigenous learning materials and methods should be suitably adapted.

- An informal atmosphere in which learning can take place free from anxiety, fear and failure is desirable.

- The learners should be allowed to progress at their own pace and not according to a rigid grade structure.

- Communication in the language of the learner is also necessary. It brings us to the need for teachers to speak in the dialect of the place and gradually to introduce the language used for administrative and commercial purposes, as needed.

- The settings for learning should be selected to suit the circumstances of the learner, e.g., the homes of children, community centres, places of religious worship, homes of teachers, temporary shelters, etc.

6. EVALUATION

6.1 Introduction

As stated earlier with regard to structures, content, methods and materials, special attention has to be given to several factors concerning the characteristics of the target groups and the non-conventional approaches used in designing a system of evaluation for the programmes under consideration. Needless to say, the conventional evaluation practices

used in the formal system will not satisfy the special needs of the nonformal and non-conventional programmes.

An effective evaluation system should fulfil a variety of functions: ensure the quality and efficiency of the entire programme; provide information and insight for optimizing learning outcomes and impact; provide evidence and data to the decision makers and planners; help learners, teachers and others involved at the grassroots level to assess learning outcomes, diagnose difficulties and improve results; and provide feedback to those who prepare learning/teaching materials in order to improve their quality. A well designed system of evaluation should therefore not only be measurement-oriented but also be improvement-oriented or development-oriented, providing information and insights to achieve better results rather than acting as a stumbling block and a threatening impersonalized instrument of grading or failing learners.

For the present purpose, evaluation may be defined as *"a process of collecting and analysing evidence and using it to judge the ... worth of the entity being evaluated for various types of decision-making."*1 In order to ensure the reliability of decisions, the entire process of evaluation should be as valid, reliable and objective as possible. At the same time it should be seen that the scheme remains practicable.

In most situations, evaluation is carried out only at the end of the period of implementation of a project and not built into all the different aspects of the total operation; or it is confined to the assessment of learning outcomes at the end of a course without taking into account the environmental and other factors under which the programme operates. What is needed is to widen the scope of the evaluation system and to make it a genuinely comprehensive and built-in system. Such a system should consider the appraisal of pertinent extra-educational factors as well as intra-educational variables and hence should include the following dimensions:

1. Appraisal of the Environmental Setting

   1.1 Diagnostic analysis of the historical and current situation in the socio-economic, political, educational and other domains

1.2 Assessment of needs and priorities

1.3 Appraisal of resources and potentialities

2. Evaluation of Inputs

2.1 Material inputs

2.2 Non-material inputs

3. Evaluation of Processes

3.1 Management processes

3.2 Pedagogical processes

4. Evaluation of Outcomes

4.1 Intermediate outcomes

4.2 Learning outcomes

5. Appraisal of Long-range Effects

5.1 On the educational domain

5.2 On socio-economic and other domains of development.

These five dimensions including the Environmental setting, Inputs, Processes, immediate Outcomes, and Long-range impact or effects (abbreviated as EIPOL) should be interrelated with the major phases (and their sub-phases) of a project or programme, namely,

1. Policy-making or pre-planning
2. Planning
3. Implementation
4. Assimilation of gains, renewal and recycling of the programme

When these phases of a programme are combined with the five dimensions of evaluation, an EIPOL grid is established as shown in Figure 1. This generalized grid serves as a guide to develop a built-in system of evaluation and monitoring. For example, the appraisal of needs, priorities and resources belong to cell 1.1. Similarly, cells 3.2, 3.3 and

Stages of built-in evaluation system / Stages of a Project Cycle	1 Appraisal of ENVIRONMENTAL SETTING	2 Evaluation of INPUTS	3 Evaluation of PROCESSES	4 Evaluation of immediate OUTCOMES	5 Evaluation of LONG-RANGE EFFECTS
1 Pre-planning	1 1	1 2	1 3	1 4	1 5
2 Planning	2 1	2 2	2 3	2 4	2 5
3 Implementation	3 1	3 2	3 3	3 4	3 5
4 Assimilation	4 1	4 2	4 3	4 4	4 5

Fig. 1. EIPOL Grid for Planning a Comprehensive and Built-in System of Evaluation and Monitoring[2]

and 3.4 are concerned with progress monitoring at the implementation stage. Evaluation of learners belongs to cell 2.4, which is formative evaluation for producing effective curricula and learning materials, and to cell 3.4, which is concerned with periodical testing and summative evaluation. Likewise, cell 4.5 calls for tracer studies and other follow-up evaluations to obtain insights into the long-range and larger impact of literacy and post-literacy programmes.

To ensure that the evaluation scheme is truly comprehensive in nature and results in a built-in and development-oriented process, the following six major components or areas of evaluation are suggested:

(i) Appraisal of the policy and plan of the entire programme

(ii) Appraisal of the administrative and institutional structures

(iii) Curriculum evaluation (content, learning materials, methods and training) for quality control

(iv) Learner evaluation (formative, summative and self-evaluation)

(v) Progress monitoring of programme implementation

(vi) Appraisal of the larger impact and long-range effects.

It is beyond the scope of this chapter to give an exhaustive treatment of all these areas, but a few remarks can be given on the last two areas.

Learner Evaluation: This is the most common area of evaluation included in almost all educational programmes. A considerable amount of work has been done by different countries in this field in recent times. Of the innovative practices, self-evaluation should be emphasized particularly for older learners and they should be encouraged to carry out continuous self-evaluation. Participatory evaluation by the learning group as a whole should also be emphasized. The question of certification and grade equivalence should be included in the evaluation plan.

Impact Evaluation: The term *impact* refers to both intermediate and long-range effects of the programmes on the personal, social and vocational development of the individuals and their collectives, especially their families and the local community. It thus refers to the results of these programmes beyond the learning outcomes or educational achievement, and on the larger areas of socio-economic development and quality of life.

One of the requirements for planning impact evaluation is to identify evaluative criteria in the form of *expected impact outcomes* (corresponding to the *expected learning outcomes* as in the case of achievement evaluation) such as (i) greater self-confidence; (ii) increased participation in the community and civic affairs; (iii) improvement in productivity and income; (iv) greater use of available services such as rural banking, postal services or agricultural extension; (v) increased concern about the education of other family members; (vi) greater awareness about the social and economic issues; etc.

In order to find evidence on these and other evaluative criteria or indicators, certain qualitative or quantitative assessment techniques may be adopted. For example, tracer studies may be carried out by following a group of learners for three to five years and collecting evidence about their further learning and the application of learning in different domains of their lives. Also, comprehensive reviews may be carried out from time to time using interview and observation techniques. Similarly, in-depth studies of selected individuals and anecdotal reports from them through extended dialogues may provide a reasonably good understanding of the impact of programmes, and of improvements which could be made.

6.2 Some Country Experiences

While some countries continue to adopt the methods and tools used for evaluation in the formal system, several countries have ventured to try out innovative techniques. Most countries have made attempts to evaluate all aspects at all levels - learner achievement, teacher performance, curriculum and learning materials, supervision and the total effectiveness and impact of the programme. For example, in Brazil, the learners are evaluated both continuously throughout the course

on their performance and participation in learning activities, and through regularly conducted achievement tests. The evaluation of instructors is based on classroom observations, records and their own self-evaluation. The effectiveness of supervision is evaluated at meetings, through reports and self-evaluation by the supervisors. The total programme is evaluated through interviews involving learners, teachers, parents, supervisors and community leaders based on their experiences and expectations, and is compared with results achieved.

Information regarding evaluation practices in a few countries is given below:

China - Learner achievement is evaluated through a final examination. The successful candidates are awarded a certificate which entitles them to continue their studies in formal or vocational schools. Teacher evaluation is done by supervisors through observation of teaching sessions. Self-evaluation by teachers is also attempted. Evaluation of the total programme is done by the local government authorities.

Colombia - Evaluation is carried out with regard to learner achievement and the impact of the programme. Techniques of self-evaluation and group evaluation are used for assessing the performance of learners. A participatory evaluation model taking into consideration ethnological principles has been developed in which the "togetherness" of education, participation and organization is recognized.

Ethiopia - The National Literacy Campaign has a built-in mechanism for evaluation. There are committees for data collecting, supervision and certification at national, regional, provincial and district levels. At the grassroots level, the different associations also have evaluation units.

India - In the project conducted by the Indian Institute of Education in Pune, self-evaluation by pupils during group work is a key feature. In addition, the project has evolved an innovative device of cumulative evaluation by organizing a children's fair (Bal Jatrá) every 5 1/2 months. During this fair, the pupils' progress in each area of learning is assessed in a relaxed, non-examination atmosphere. The programme of the fair consists of competitions in games, story-telling, elocution, singing, drawing and painting, and testing

of achievement in literacy, numeracy and general information. Specially devised graded education tools are used. The performance of each pupil in different activities is observed and recorded by a pair of 'external' teachers. Since there is no fear of failure or repeating a class and since each child can show good skills in some activity or other, examination stress is absent.

Indonesia - Evaluation activities related to learner achievement are carried out both at group and individual level. Formative evaluation is carried out by the teachers. There are no standardized instruments for testing achievement in the 3Rs. Monitors and supervisors carry out monitoring evaluation at the local level. The tutors submit reports to the supervisors every month and supply information on problems and request help to solve them. Such monitoring at the sub-district level as well as programme evaluation and impact evaluation is conducted by outside organizations, e.g., the Centre for Research and Development. Self-evaluation has not been attempted.

Mexico - Periodic evaluation is carried out to collect information from all parts of the country about learner performance, attendance and general progress of the learners. Instruments in the form of booklets have been designed to collect such information at the state level. One example of the immediate impact of evaluation feedback is the use of such data for revising and improving learning materials.

The Philippines - Regional development councils are playing a role in evaluation. Barangai (village) officials coordinate the data gathering and monitoring of nonformal programmes. They also coordinate the formal and nonformal programmes at Barangai level.

Sri Lanka - The evaluation process is decentralized. Regional officers-in-charge send monthly reports to the Education Officer of the region and the Education Officer sends monthly reports to the Nonformal Education Division of the Ministry of Education. The curriculum has been evaluated by an external team of evaluators. Pupil attendance has been taken as one of the indicators of the success of a centre. Investigations are also made to determine the adequacy of supporting services and to take corrective action. It is found, for example, that if the milk supply by the Social

Services Department does not function properly, the attendance at the Centre is effected. Therefore, good coordination of all systems is found to be necessary to ensure effective functioning of the programme.

Venezuela - A flexible approach comprising two strategies is used: one for those learners who attend classes regularly and another for the 'occasional attendance' category.

- regular attendance category: attendance is obligatory and performance is assessed continuously; there is no final examination;

- occasional attendance category: attendance is not obligatory but learners are evaluated by a final examination at the end of the course.

Zambia - The learners are expected to sit the national public examination conducted for the pupils of the formal school for purposes of certification.

7. TEACHERS AND OTHER RELATED ASPECTS

7.1 Teachers of Nonformal Education Programmes

The success of programmes to provide quality education to out-of-school learners through flexible non-conventional approaches depends on personnel who understand the special problems and circumstances of the learners, and perceive the potentialities of the nonformal approach. Furthermore, they should be sensitive and sympathetic to the difficulties and disadvantages faced by the learners for whom these programmes are intended. Unlike those in the formal system, teachers and other personnel working with nonformal approaches will quite often be required to chart their own course using innovative strategies to suit the unique situations confronting them.

There appear to be several categories of teachers for nonformal education programmes:

(i) Teachers of the formal system specially trained to teach at primary level working on a part-time basis

(ii) Teachers who have been specially trained for non-formal education programmes

(iii) Personnel with expertise in various fields but not necessarily professional teachers, such as social workers, worker educators, "popular educators", vocational trainers, information specialists, extension workers in health, agriculture, etc., skilled workers, craftsmen, etc.

(iv) Volunteers including retired persons, students and members of the clergy.

In most developing countries, categories (i), (iii) and (iv) are usually available, but it is very rare to find category (ii). For economic reasons, developing countries have to benefit from all available human resources and take steps to train them to play the role of teachers in nonformal education programmes. Emergency measures have to be taken to meet urgent needs bearing in mind that such measures are only temporary and that long-term plans are needed to prepare professionally qualified teachers for nonformal programmes as well. In this respect, it would be desirable to train teachers who are competent to teach in both formal and nonformal sectors.

7.2 Qualifications of Teachers

In the ideal situation, teachers of both formal and nonformal educational programmes should be given professional training and should be graduates of institutions of teacher education. However, it is quite clear that this ideal will not be achieved in most developing countries in the near future for reasons which are obvious. Teachers in the nonformal sector will need, besides the traditional academic and pedagogical subjects, some knowledge and skills related to the various areas of learning and methodology encountered in nonformal programmes.

7.3 Training of Teachers

All categories of teachers indicated in section 7.1 above need pre-service/in-service education to function effectively in the nonformal sector. Many countries have short-term in-service programmes for giving the minimum competencies to the various categories of personnel deployed as nonformal teachers. Few countries have adequate pre-service programmes specially for this purpose.

Teachers having a background of training to teach in the formal system need to familiarize themselves with the differences between the formal and nonformal sectors in all aspects of the learning/teaching process, viz., characteristics of the learners, the curriculum, methodology, evaluation, resources, structures and organization, etc.

Even those who have had a pre-service training in nonformal approaches will need continuous in-service training to enable them to cope with the wide variety of situations they have to face and the rapid change taking place in the nonformal sector.

Those who do not possess any type of pedagogical training will need special programmes to give them the pedagogical skills as well as other competencies pertaining to the nonformal sector necessary for effective performance.

Some countries are faced with the problem of training a large number of teachers in the shortest possible time. Hence there is a need for more research on the training of teachers for nonformal education programmes. The need to train teachers in participatory action research in order to give them the competencies to involve the community in the total educational process has been recognized. The question of adequate renumeration for the teachers also needs attention.

NOTES

1. Dave, R.H. 'A Built-in System of Evaluation for Reform Projects and Programmes in Education'. *International Review of Education*. Vol. XXVI, No. 4, 1980, pp. 475-82.

2. Idem, p. 481.

CHAPTER 2

A CASE STUDY FROM BRAZIL

by

Ana Maria Coutinho
Maria de Lourdes Araujo
José Batista Tavares
MOBRAL

Rio de Janeiro
Brazil

1. ILLITERACY IN BRAZIL

The problem of illiteracy in Brazil started with the Portuguese colonial regime, under which the Brazilian population was kept in a state of ignorance - the system's main method of domination. Though sporadic efforts to improve the population's educational level were made, the need for any further skills among labourers in an agricultural economy was disregarded. From 1930 onwards, and especially after the Second World War, the process of industrialization began more and more to demand skilled labour, which increased the need for better education for the masses.

While tne illiteracy rate decreased quickly over the years, the absolute number of illiterate persons kept growing, a trend which indicated the need for additional efforts to combat illiteracy. The analysis of statistical data from 1950 onwards reveals that at that time the number of illiterate adults (15 years of age and over) was approximately 15 million persons, a figure representing an extremely high illiteracy rate - 50.7% of the total adult population. In the interval between 1950 and 1980, despite the reduction in the illiteracy rate to 25.5%, the absolute number of persons without any education at all grew from 15.3 million to 18.7 million, a growth rate of approximately 18% (see Tables 1, 2 und 3). This illiterate population is very irregularly distributed over the vast territory of Brazil.

Generally speaking, illiterate adults are concentrated in the less developed states of the Federation, in rural zones and on the outskirts of the larger cities.

In 1980 the number of children between 7 and 14 years of age was 22,981,546. Of these, some two thirds (67.1%) were attending school, and 7,560,929 (i.e., 32.9%) were illiterate. That same year, some 539,446 14-year-olds were illiterate and would therefore the next year join the population of illiterate adults, thereby increasing this population by 2.88%.

Table 1. Urban and Rural Illiteracy Rates in 1950 and 1980

ZONE / YEAR	URBAN		RURAL		TOTAL	
	1950	1980	1950	1980	1950	1980
Population (all ages, in thousands)	18,783	80,436	33,162	38,566	51,944	119,002
Adults (15 years and over, in thousands)	12,178	51,982	18,071	21,560	30,249	73,542
Illiterate Adults (in thousands)	2,237	15,683	12,096	17,049	15,333	18,717
Illiteracy Rate (%)	18.4	31.1	66.9	3.8	50.7	25.5

Source: 1950 and 1980 IBGE (Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics) Census.

Table 2. Illiteracy Rates by Sex in 1950 and 1980

SEX / YEARS	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	1950	1980	1950	1980	1950	1980
Population (all ages, in thousands)	25,885	59,123	26,069	58,879	51,944	119,002
Adults (15 years and over, in thousands)	14,923	36,178	15,326	37,364	30,249	73,542
Illiterate Adults (in thousands)	6,760	8,560	8,573	10,157	15,333	18,717
Illiteracy Rate (%)	45.3	23.6	55.9	27.2	50.7	25.5

Source: 1950 and 1980 IBGE (Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics) Census.

Table 3. Distribution by Region of Illiterate Adults (15 years and over) and Adolescents, according to the 1980 Census

REGION	ILLITERACY
South	16.3%
Southeast	16.8%
Middle West	25.3%
North	29.2%
Northeast	45.4%
BRAZIL	26%

Source: 1980 IBGE Census.

There is little evidence that this situation has changed much since 1980. Another problem added to the high illiteracy rate is the issue of failure and dropout. For 1979 it is noted that while the rate of failure at the end of the first grade of the primary level was 30.39%, the immediate dropout rate was 7.29%, and the dropout rate from the first to the second grade was 21.75%, which means a total waste rate of 59.43% in relation to initial enrolments.

2. THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Article 176, Paragraph 3, item II of the Brazilian Constitution states that "elementary education is mandatory for all from the ages of seven through fourteen and is provided free of charge by State establishments". According to Law No. 5692, which sets the guidelines for primary level schooling, the minimum age is seven, but children may begin school even when less than seven years old.

Primary level schooling includes the first eight school grades, while secondary level schooling embraces an additional three grades.

In addition to the requirements of the law, in its document *Planning Guidelines (1982 Programme)*, the Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) gives priority to basic education in accordance with the social guidelines of the Third National Development Plan:

> "The area of basic education includes formal and non-formal education, centered on and around primary level schooling, including pre-school education and, at more advanced stages of development, the conclusion of the secondary level, to ensure that all members of society shall be able to realize themselves as people, qualify as economic actors and be trained to perform their social and political duties. The accentuation of this area is, in fact, a direct consequence of the Ministry's social and cultural remit and of the constitutional requirement that all people aged 7 to 14 shall have access to primary level schooling. This priority is the most comprehensive and fundamental action that the Ministry can propose to society and the country".[1]

As indicated above, one must not regard basic education as being restricted to pre-school and primary level education and to certain aspects of secondary education. "Basic education is more comprehensive, and includes formal and nonformal varieties of education: educational action with or without grading and educational action which includes elements of health, nutrition and work, and basic elements of science and communication within the context of functional literacy."[2]

When the Director General of UNESCO visited Brazil in 1981, the General Secretary of the Ministry of Education and Culture noted that the above priority meant "the commitment shared by the whole government to reduce social and regional inequalities as a result of an integrated and intersectorial effort of a social and economic nature".[3]

3. DESCRIPTION OF THE NONFORMAL PRIMARY LEVEL PROGRAMME

3.1 Present Status

3.1.1 *Basic Education*

A variety of problems are of concern to those who deal with and/or are interested in education in Brazil. The first of them is that a large number of children are not absorbed by the educational system, although they have the right to schooling by law, as we have already seen.

There is also the problem of repetition, since some students remain in the same grade for more than one year. There is also the dropout problem, which is particulary serious between the first and second grades of primary level schooling, as shown in Fig. 1.

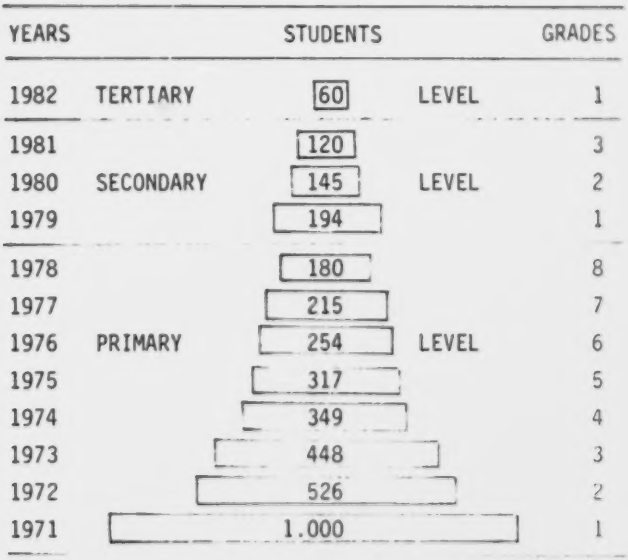

Fig. 1. The Education Pyramid in Brazil, 1971-82.

Source: Informatics Secretariat, General Secretariat, Ministry of Education and Culture, 1982.

Table 4. Repetition Rates by Grade and by Region, 1981. (%)

REGIONS	REPETITION RATES								
	TOTAL	1st Grade	2nd Grade	3rd Grade	4th Grade	5th Grade	6th Grade	7th Grade	8th Grade
North	26.07	31.18	23.78	21.35	18.97	29.45	24.58	21.94	16.08
Northeast	25.34	29.60	25.16	21.90	18.62	27.46	21.90	19.26	13.77
Southeast	25.52	36.71	24.42	19.79	14.18	30.96	26.04	22.04	14.16
South	22.03	35.18	16.56	13.92	16.36	23.43	22.02	19.83	18.58
Center-West	23.54	30.37	21.48	18.42	14.61	28.72	23.01	21.82	17.51
Brazil	24.97	32.70	23.50	43.12	15.83	29.07	24.31	21.99	14.96

Source: Ministry of Education and Culture. General Data. 1982.

Notes: 1. Schools with two or more classrooms in the State of Paranà have not been included.

2. The Repetition Rate per grade represents the retention of students with insufficient achievement in each grade at the end of the year and overall repetition in the system.

Table 5. Dropout Rates in Primary Level Grades Compared with the Previous Year, 1976-1982. (%)

YEARS	GRADES						
	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th
1976	45.65	19.86	17.02	8.58	19.87	15.35	18.08
1977	44.67	17.00	15.57	4.05	16.90	15.38	16.53
1978	45.11	16.17	15.40	1.11	18.58	15.39	16.21
1979	44.67	18.12	17.26	-0.33	20.29	15.73	17.71
1980	46.13	16.46	15.75	-1.86	22.99	16.48	17.62
1981	47.42	19.92	19.79	2.50	25.46	19.97	21.00
1982	46.73	20.72	20.18	3.47	27.17	21.60	22.27

Source: Ministry of Education and Culture. General Data. 1982.

Tables 4 and 5 show that dropout rates are generally much higher than repetition rates.

Of course, some of the dropouts will return to school after a time, or they may join primary and secondary level adult education courses.

3.1.2 *Adult Education*

The purpose of adult education is to give access to schooling to nearly 50 million Brazilians who were unable to complete primary schooling at the proper age. It is further intended to provide supplementary education (periodic returns to school for development or updating), apprenticeship (systematic training at work), and vocational training.

Educational action is implemented through State and/or County Education Secretariats, private educational institutions and the National Foundation for Youth and Adult Education, EDUCAR, an agency of the Ministry of Education which has replaced the former MOBRAL Foundation. Under Decree No. 91,980 of 25 November 1985, the President of Brazil made EDUCAR responsible for developing programmes for those who had had no access to schooling or who had to abandon it. EDUCAR was thus described as "an institution which, acting indirectly and jointly with the network of the adult education subsystem and civil institutions and directly through actions planned and implemented under its responsibility, would develop the national policy for basic education for young people and adults in Brazil".[4]

3.2 The Programme for those aged 9 to 14

Article 9 of law 5692 states that "students suffering from physical or mental handicaps, those who are considerably above the normal enrolment age and highly gifted children shall receive special treatment according to the rules established by the proper Educational Councils".

The MOBRAL Foundation's Policy and Guidelines document for 1984 included priority education for low-income people through action of a nonformal nature (long-term adaptation to reality, search for participation in the community, use of com-

munity education methodology). In addition, one of the guidelines was "to cooperate and participate in the efforts made by state or county educational systems in providing out-of-school education to those aged 7 to 14".

Accordingly, the Ministry of Education's Secretariat of Primary and Secondary Education (SEPS) and the MOBRAL Foundation agreed that a proposal of joint action for developing specific projects for the population aged 9 to 14 out of school would respond to the educational rights of these children and adolescents and to the universalization of basic education set out in government plans.

Studies performed on the basis of data for the 9 to 14 age group provided by the 1980 Population Census (see Table 6), showed that in 1985 30% of Brazil's population in this age group, i.e. approximately 5.6 million children and adolescents, were not in school. It is precisely this population that was the MOBRAL Foundation's potential clientele. Thus, basic schooling for those of school going age whose right to education was not fulfilled was also one of the concerns of this agency, whose policy included *providing support to the regular system*, following the lines of action laid down by the Ministry of Education.[5]

Table 6. School Enrolment of the Population Aged 9 to 14

POPULATION CENSUS	1970	%	1980	%
Total Population	14,294,823	100	17,087,212	100
Population in School	10,027,353	70.15	11,952,444	69.95
Population out of School	4,267,470	29.85	5,134,768	30.05

Source: Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics (IBGE)

Recognizing that the universalization of basic education within the short term would require the joint efforts of a number of agencies to the limit of their potential, the MOBRAL Foundation in supporting the education systems made its con-

tribution through the experience it had obtained in its work among the "marginalized population", which aided in the development of a nonformal approach.

Accordingly, the participation of the MOBRAL Foundation in a joint SEPS-MOBRAL/COEPE (Primary and Secondary Schooling Coordination Office) action with the State Education Secretariats (SEC) to provide schooling for those aged 9 to 14 outside school was intended *to reinforce the action proposed by the Ministry of Education in the National Literacy Programme for the Regular Primary Level Schooling System*, this integrated action to be in the form of projects developed in the Federal agencies according to the requirements identified by the local system.

3.3 The Implementation

The Education Programme for the 9 to 14 age group began to be implemented in 1983 in the State of Ceará (Northeast Brazil) as a pilot project on the initiative of the said State. Following this, other States in Northeastern Brazil showed interest in developing similar actions, considering the large number of children and adolescents in the 9 to 14 age group who were not in school.

This interest shown by the States caused SEPS and the MOBRAL Foundation to develop guidelines which would not only ensure technical quality, but uniform action as well. These guidelines received the title of "MEC-SEPS/MOBRAL Integrated Action with State Secretariats for Providing Out-of-School Education to those Aged 9 to 14". Based on these guidelines, the action spread to other States, priority being given to the Northeast Region.

3.4 Curriculum

Diagnosis of reality is the starting point for establishing the curriculum. It should cover, on the one hand, a knowledge of the population's characteristics and demand for education; on the other hand, the system's potential for satisfying this demand, particularly the limits and possibilities of the SEC in responding to the needs of this population's expectations/aspirations.

Knowledge of reality will naturally imply the development of differentiated forms of educational provision that are consistent with the target group and structured in accordance with them and not the system. Thus, more flexible education alternatives shall arise side by side with those habitually used by schools, this flexibility being applied to time of year, hours, location, approach, contents, etc. These forms must be developed as a result of the joint participation of the technical team and the population or community involved. The duration of the educational project may vary according to the reality of the situation and the ways in which the project can be developed.

The minimum contents involve reading and writing, elementary mathematical skills and the elementary knowledge of the physical and social world required in man's daily life. This is knowledge of a comprehensive and universal nature.

These contents are a prerequisite for continuing studies at a higher level of schooling. They are also fundamental instruments and information for increasing an individual's chances of taking part in literate society and fully exercising his citizenship.

Regional and state contents are also provided for. Evidently, such contents can only be defined at the state or regional level. In this way the law of each Federal entity is respected since each educational proposal is subject to recognition by State authorities.

The development of contents relating to the social, economic and cultural experience of young people, their characteristics, interests and needs takes place at the local or, more specifically, at the teacher-student level.

A minimum set of conditions must be satisfied to allow implementation of a programme of child and adolescent education under the project. Education may be provided in locations other than school buildings, but certain requirements must be met: cleanliness and sanitary considerations; the area available and furniture (which may be simple but must be consistent with the activities being carried out, the size of the groups and the type of teaching); the possibility of preparing and/or distributing lunches, which should be considered as an essential and guaranteed element throughout the period

of activities. The location should be considered above all from the standpoint of accessibility to where these children and adolescents live and work. There should be no requirements regarding fees, documentation or uniforms, and all school materials should be provided free.

3.5 Methodology

To understand the social, economic and cultural reality of the target population, in association with an awareness of the school's social function, it is necessary to observe certain methodological principles applicable to the education to be provided under the project, namely:

- While being creative and differentiated, the education provided should not fail to ensure transmission and assimilation of systematized knowledge - this being the school's basic function - thus giving students the opportunity to pursue their studies at other levels;

- The contents that are transmitted should be consistent with the reality of these children and adolescents, while keeping in mind their life and work requirements;

- Knowledge should be built upon the basis of what they already know and their life experience, and this should be used in the acquisition of reading, writing and arithmetic skills.

Furthermore:

- To the extent that it is provided to students with different chracteristics and is based on their knowledge, teaching should be differentiated for each group of students and not follow the regular system's grade structure;

- The possibility of condensing school grades afforded by this type of educational approach (using special learning texts) should not imply sacrificing the fundamental content of basic education, as defined in the project by the minimum contents to be achieved. There is a *content correspondence* between the regular and non-

regular systems. However, there is no grade correspondence as such;

- All this effort should allow these children and adolescents to develop a critical attitude toward the reality of their lives, without forgetting that they are children and adolescents, have play requirements and need affection, have their own forms of expression, and their individualities.

All these features should in the end lead to the principle of quality, expressed in a particular form of education subject to the understanding of the reality and to the reaffirmation of the school's role as a transmitter of knowledge.

3.6 Teaching Materials

The ideal would be to develop materials that reproduce the cultural traits of the clientele and which come as close as possible to real life. The relevance of the material to real life would favour the expression of personal experience, the most genuine expression of thought and knowledge, and would, above all, provide an opportunity for exploring contents associated with the minimum curriculum of the first four grades of primary level schooling. While there would be a correspondence between the content of these materials and that of the formal system, the texts would not be the same.

However, there are difficulties involved in this approach. With illiterate students, one has to use a sequence of words of increasing difficulty, which is implicit in teaching how to read and write Portuguese.

As regards elements that generate discussion of the content, the joint development of texts by the students themselves is the best way of motivating them and of enhancing personal experiences and different contributions.

There is a another alternative as regards teaching materials. The Education Secretariats (SEC) could select, from among the available materials, those that are best suited to the specific methodology. In addition to providing its own teaching materials, the MOBRAL Foundation did this by supply-

ing the Secretariats with valuable data for selecting key words and texts used normally for adult education. Use was made of books for the functional literacy and integrated education programmes. Although they were intended for an adult public, teachers received training in their use with students aged 9 to 14. MOBRAL also took part in selecting supplementary materials for further development of subjects chosen by the students.

Educational materials should be provided free of charge to the children and adolescents participating in the programme.

3.7 Human Resources

Providing quality education to out-of-school children requires not just a theoretical conception of more flexible approaches, but a particular curriculum and teaching-learning methodology, developed on the basis of the diagnosis of the reality of the learner's situation and the involvement of human resources that are capable of implementing the proposal. It is essential for the technical and administrative personnel and the teachers to be involved in broad discussions of the Project and the development of implementation models, from the diagnosis stage down to that of evaluation.

It is thought that teachers already employed in regular teaching should be given preference in the project, thus indirectly benefiting the regular classes of schools. Recruitment of trainees and other teachers should be resorted to only when the Secretariats are unable to meet the population's demand for education due to the lack of personnel. Selection standards and adequate rates of pay should be established for these human resources, and procedures should be established to prevent the high turnover of project teaching personnel.

The integrated action proposal for educating those aged 9 to 14 outside school should include a Teacher Training Plan that includes development of social and psychological topics for a true understanding of pupils from all standpoints, in addition to a study of contents (reading, writing, and arithmetic) and teaching methods. This training plan, as well as all other activities for making the project operational, should be the result of complementary technical efforts on

the part of the government agencies involved. The duration of the training should be 40 hours.

3.8 Financial and Other Resources

The integrated SEPS/MOBRAL/COEPE and SEC action for providing education to people aged 9 to 14 outside school was financed with funds that were provided directly by the MOBRAL Foundation to the State Secretariats of Education (SEC). These funds were to be used preferably for the *training of personnel and the supervision and evaluation of educational activities*, but would also be used for bonuses or additional pay for teachers for overtime work and/or educational materials.

In 1985, the budgeted amount was Cz$ 1,888,024.00 or about US$ 100.000. In 1986, it had risen to Cz$ 7,000,000.00 (seven million cruzados) or about US$ 350,000.

3.9 Monitoring and Evaluation

All individuals who were directly or indirectly involved in the Project took part in the evaluation, while monitoring was performed by the technical staffs of the State Secretariats and the MOBRAL Foundation's State Coordination Offices. The Project was evaluated from start to finish, covering the diagnosis, the objectives and methodology, the procedure, and the results achieved.

Evaluation of the supervision of the teaching of people in the 9 to 14 age group was carried out by the working group set up by the organizations involved by means of activity reports, meetings for describing experience and contributions, and self-evaluation by the supervisor.

Teacher evaluation by the supervisor was carried out by observing classroom performance, activity cards and records, and self-evaluation meetings. At the same time, evaluation of the supervisor by the teacher was recommended, by means of meetings and/or forms.

Evaluation of students by teachers was to take place throughout from a *process* standpoint. For this purpose, it was necessary:

- to observe systematically the student's participation in all classroom activities;

- to use observation forms and performance records throughout the process;

- to employ bimonthly achievement tests.

At the same time it was necessary to develop means to permit observation in the classroom of:

- learner practice;

- teacher-learner relations;

- the suitability of the methodology in terms of objectives; and

- the material used.

The community was to evaluate the Project. Interviews were set up between students, parents, teachers and school principals to discuss what they expected the Project to provide and, subsequently, the results achieved. Following the various meetings adjustments were made to correct evident faults.

4. THE PRESENT-DAY SITUATION OF THE PROGRAMME

Because of the reorganization of MOBRAL and the creation of the EDUCAR Foundation, described earlier, the "9 to 14 Programme" is being transferred to SEPS. A working group has been set up to monitor the hand-over, thus avoiding suspension of Programme activities.

Responsibilities are to be distributed as follows:

Ministry of Education (State Offices) and SEPS

- Coordinate the actions of the 9 to 14 Out-of-School Programme.

- Sign agreements with the Secretariats.

SEPS/EDUCAR

- Provide technical and financial support to States and Counties in implementing actions.

- Provide support to the State and County Secretariats in preparing, organizing, and implementing the Project.

- Monitor the use of the funds provided for organizing and/or developing the Project.

- Supply the State and County Secretariats with educational materials and school lunches for implementation of the Project.

State Secretariat or County Secretariat

- Make all necessary arrangements for implementing the Project.

- Recruit the teachers and other personnel required to achieve the established goal.

- Organize activities in order to cover the target geographical area and the goal set in the Project.

- Provide or secure space for holding classes.

- Organize classes with at least 15 and not more than 25 students.

- Provide management of the Project and the activities relating to implementation of the requirements of the Agreement.

Table 7, using data for 1986, shows that the Programme has been continued, although on a reduced scale as compared with the previous year.

Table 7. Situation of the 9 to 14 Programme by States and Regions - 1986

STATES/REGIONS	AGENCY INVOLVED	GOAL	DURATION IN MONTHS
Acre	SEC	250	10
Parâ	SEC/FBESP	1,200	10
	SEC	160	10
North Region	-	1,610	30
Ceará	SEMEC	8,640	10
	SEC	3,950	10
Paraîba	SEMEC	900	12
Pernambuco	SEMEC (Caruaru)	420	7
	SEMEC (Cabo)	-	12
	SEMEC (Paulista)	500	10
	SEMEC (Recife)	1,500	12
	SEC	2,400	10
Piauî	SEC	430	10
	SEMEC	150	11
Rio G. do Norte	SEC	-	-
	SEMEC	404	6
Sergipe	SEC	300	10
Northeast Region	-	19,594	120
Santa Catarina	PROFAS	30	24
	SEMEC	20	25
South Region	-	50	49
TOTAL	-	21,254	199

Note: SEC = State Education Secretariat
SEMEC = County Education Secretariat

Certain bottlenecks that are hindering improved implementation of the Programme should be noted:

- Literacy students are difficult to fit into the formal school system because of age/grade differences. As we have already seen there is no official correspondence between the grades of the formal and the nonformal system.

- State Commissions should show greater care in the choice of suitable learning material for the age range.

- The implementing agency should exercise more systematic technical educational supervision.

- There should be greater concern on the part of the State for the supply of school lunches, adequate space with the required equipment, and the assignment of teachers to implement project actions.

Concerning accrediation, the Secretariats of Education have the technical support of the State Level Education Council.

Finally, it should be noted that, from 1987, programme actions are under the entire responsibility and subject to the coordination and monitoring of the Ministry of Education's Basic Education Secretariat (formerly SEPS). Funding of the State and County Secretariats will be provided solely by the Ministry.

NOTES

1. Ministry of Education and Culture. *Planning Guidelines (1982 Programme)*. Brasilia, 1981 (in Portuguese).

2. Ministry of Education and Culture. Secretariat of Primary and Secondary Education, 1981.

3. Ministry of Education and Culture. Statement by the General Secretary, 1981.

4. Ministry of Education and Culture. *Political and Educational Guidelines - EDUCAR Foundation - 1986*. Brasilia, 1986 (in Portuguese).

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CHAPTER 3

A CASE STUDY FROM CHINA

by

Chen Shao-min
Teaching Researcher
Shanghai Bureau of Education

Shanghai
People's Republic of China

1. EDUCATION AND LITERACY

1.1 Nonformal Primary Education

China is trying her best to develop primary education so as to meet the needs of modernization. But the number of formal schools is still not enough to accommodate the 137,000,000 children of school age. It is necessary to adopt different measures to make it possible for more children to get the education they should have. Taken together, these measures are termed Nonformal Primary Education (NPE), which is for children aged 6-14, and does not include adults. This study focuses on the 5% of primary level drop-outs and early leavers.

For this report information was provided by a few selected provinces where nonformal education is developing. Thanks to the help of these provinces, we have some illustrative examples.

1.2 Literacy Level

Of the 500,000,000 people in China of working age, 51.9% are engaged in agricultural production. It is said that about 10 million adults ranging in age from 14 to 60 still remain illiterate or semi-literate. The percentage of enrolled school-aged children is about 96% and we have 1.4 million college students. There are also correspondence university classes, radio and TV universities and night colleges. All these measures will raise the cultural level and help the nation to produce as many skilled workers and technicians as possible in order to meet the needs of the socialist construction of the country. Though the number of college students has been increasing, higher learning still should be encouraged.

1.3 The Education System

In pre-liberation days, education was very backward. At the founding of the People's Republic in 1949, the government made much-needed structural changes to some schools and universities, and there was an upsurge in educational development. In 1985 the enrolment ratio of primary school-aged children had reached 95%. The total enrolment in primary schools amounted to 130,000,000, increasing by 75% over 1949.

Despite the efforts we have made, there are still 5% drop-outs and early leavers. That is to say, about 7,000,000 children are still out of school. We must take necessary measures to block new illiteracy and to bring about the implementation of compulsory education.

We have pre-school education. In 1983 there were more than 11 million children in 136,000 kindergartens and nurseries.

Children enter primary school at age 6-7, and generally remain there for six years of study, although some schools offer five years. Primary education has become the rule in most places throughout the country. The government is now introducing the Nine-Year Compulsory Education Law. The whole nation regards elementary education as the foundation of all progress.

Middle schools or secondary schools are intermediate in level between elementary schools and colleges or universities. They are subdivided into junior middle and senior middle schools. The junior middle schools, laying emphasis on the basics, are operated under the nine-year programme of compulsory education prescribed by the state. The senior middle schools afford what is called higher education, as do technical schools, normal schools and a variety of other vocational schools. There are separate junior as well as senior middle schools while there exist full middle schools complete with junior and senior divisions. In 1985, the average proportion of primary school graduates entering junior middle schools was 68.4%, while that of junior middle school graduates entering senior middle schools was 41.2% and the proportion of senior middle school graduates entering full-time institutions of higher education reached 26.9%.

2. DESCRIPTION OF THE NONFORMAL PRIMARY LEVEL PROGRAMME

2.1 Major Achievements

In 1984, a document concerning the reform of China's educational structure was issued, followed by the Nine-Year Compulsory Education Law in 1986. Since then, most local governments have been working hard in education, especially elementary education. More and more formal schools have been set up. But we are far from the goal of universalization. Supplementary measures have therefore had to be taken.

Being a vast country, China faces the problem of uneven economic and cultural development. There are many economically under-developed areas, where one fourth of the country's population reside. They are mainly the mountain areas, border areas, pasture lands and the areas occupied by national minorities. How to improve their economic conditions and to let school-aged children be well educated there, has become a very important problem in the construction of the country. This report mainly deals with achievements in regard to the 5% drop-outs and early leavers in those areas.

Take Yunan Province as an example. Mountain areas make up 90% of its land. There are 32,500,000 people living in various mountain areas. These scattered inhabitants account for 67% of the whole population of the province, among whom there are 24 national minorities. It is an economically under-developed province. Yet by exerting utmost efforts, the people there have made progress in primary education. In 1985 the percentage of enrolment of school-aged children had reached 93.1%, increasing by 9.6% over 1983. In 1986 the local government again initiated some flexible ways of schooling, increasing the ratio by another 0.5%. That is to say, in 1986, among the 4,120,000 children, 20,600 more got the chance to study in line with the development of nonformal education.

In northern China there is a province with pasture as its main product. Its name is Inner Mongolia. The provincial government has divided primary education into three categories, so that the requirements and contents of compulsory education vary from place to place. In 1985 46 counties popularized primary education: among 2,006,027 school-aged children, 1,943,304 have been enrolled in different types of school

and teaching centre. The total enrolment in 1986 had reached 96.82%.

Another example is in Guandong Province, where there is a small county on Hainan Island. The local government has organized 285 night classes in formal schools, where 10,847 school-aged children have been enrolled, accounting for 19% of the school-aged children in the area; 47 other coastal counties of this province have set up various kinds of teaching station or teaching centre, enabling 5% of the drop-outs to get the chance to study. Though Guandong is an economically developed area, the formal schools are still far from sufficient to meet the needs. So nonformal ways of schooling are necessary in the years to come.

There are many good examples of combining the formal educational system with a nonformal system. All the efforts made by different levels of government have added to the achievements of the universalization of primary education in China.

2.1.1 *Present Status of Nonformal Education*

By now 95% of Chinese school-aged children are enrolled, and 70% of primary school graduates have the chance to continue their study in junior middle schools. However, primary education is not yet universally accepted, leaving about 7 million school-aged children, particularly girls, dropping out of the elementary courses. Furthermore, the quality of education in rural areas is generally low, with only 60% of the primary graduates reaching the set standards. Drop-out and early leaving are mainly caused by the following factors:

a. Bad geographical conditions. China is a vast country, but its communications and transportation are not fully developed. This has brought trouble in education. Formal schools are too far away for some inhabitants, and there are only a few children in the thinly inhabited villages of scattered communities. How to help these children go to school in time has presented the universalization of education with a problem. The nonformal approach is appropriate in such cases.

b. Poverty of some families. China is a developing country.

According to the report of *People's Daily* on Nov. 5, 1986, we know that there are some 15 million members of minority groups who still cannot produce enough to eat. Though 4 billion yuan ($1.1 billion) have been allocated by the government to raise the economic and cultural standard of minority areas, border and impoverished areas, some people there have not yet shaken off poverty. Some of the children are needed both in the fields and at home. This creates many difficulties for the universalization of primary education.

c. Discrimination against girls. Influenced by feudal ideas or by old traditional customs, people in rural areas usually neglect the education of girls. They even encourage their daughters to marry early. Hence many school-aged girls become drop-outs. For instance, in the national minorities of Miao, Yao, Yi and Zhuang, the percentage of girls' enrolment is 8% lower than that of boys. In some backward places, the foolish superstitious saying is current that girls are the ghosts of the family. Those girls are not allowed to go out. Effective persuasion and measures are necessary to free the girls.

d. Lack of qualified teachers. The teaching quality in rural areas is rather low, and parents think that their children will not learn much at school. So they keep their children at home for housework (cooking, feeding animals, taking care of younger brothers and sisters). We must try every measure to improve teaching quality and let the parents see the importance of education so that they will give up their short-sighted point of view and cooperate with the schools and teachers.

e. Handicapped children and mentally disabled children. Though we have set up some schools for the handicapped, there are still not enough to meet the needs of the blind, the deaf and mute. In Yunan Province, for example, there are 240,000 handicapped children, among whom 37,750 are school-aged, i.e., 0.8% of all school-aged children. There are only seven schools for the handicapped and the disabled. The total enrolment is only 656 and the percentage of enrolment is only 1.7%. According to the latest statistics, among the 285,000 drop-outs of Yunan, 13.2% are handicapped.

2.1.2 *Legal Status of Nonformal Education*

The constitution of China stipulates that the state must provide free and compulsory education to all children till they attain the age of 14.

The decision made by the Twelfth Committee of the Chinese Communist Party at its Third Plenary Session on the reform of the economic structure pointed out that education must serve socialist construction, which in turn must rely on education. The government has therefore promulgated a nine-year compulsory education law, which the state, the community and the family are required to support.

2.1.3 *Aims and Objectives of Nonformal Education*

The aim of nonformal education is to give all drop-outs and early leavers the chance to finish at least primary education.

2.1.4 *Different Types of Nonformal Primary Education*

In line with the development of primary education, we have set up more than 832,309 formal primary schools and 180,354 nonformal teaching stations (or classes) all over the country. Besides, there are about 460 private schools run by individuals. The total enrolment amounts to 130,000,000 and the total number of primary school teachers to about 6,000,000. Yet the formal schools are far from adequate. According to the specific conditions of the localities, simplified forms of schooling or teaching stations have therefore been set up. For example, there are:

- morning classes
- midday study classes
- night study classes
- every-other-day classes
- pasture coaching classes
- break-time coaching in planting areas (classes for the peasants' children)
- mobile teaching (the teacher goes to different places to teach)

- multi-grade classes (different grades in one classroom)
- teaching stations (usually for the fishermen's children)
- simple boarding schools offering free education in border areas (for children of fishermen and minorities)

Investigations show that more than 200,000 such non-formal stations (classes) have been functioning well. Experiences from Xizang (Tibet) have told us that the simple boarding schools are very effective.

2.2 The Curriculum, Teaching Materials and Methodology of Nonformal Education

In order to be effective, an appropriate curriculum, teaching materials and methodology must be selected. According to the simplified teaching programme of some provincial governments, children aged 6-10 have to complete at least 3,280 periods in four years, 800 periods less than the formal teaching programme.To finish the reduced programme takes 40 weeks a year, 19-22 periods a week, and 3-4 periods a day. In most of the simplified schools or classes, each period will last 40 minutes or less. The main courses are Chinese and mathematics with the addition of science if this is possible. The teaching materials are sometimes compiled by the local educational administration, and all of them are published in provincial publishing houses. The contents of the main courses are as follows:

Chinese
- Learning about 2,500 Chinese characters and commonly used expressions
- Using Chinese dictionaries
- Writing passages or simple compositions
- Good handwriting

Maths
- Arithmetic (including decimals and fractions)
- The relationship between number and quantity
- Some knowledge of plane geometry
- The usage of common measurements
- Use of the abacus

The following is an example of a simplified teaching programme from Yunan Province.

A Simplified Teaching Programme
in Rural Areas (Periods per Week)

SUBJECT		GRADE 1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year	4th Year	Periods in Total
Morals		1	1	1	1	160
Chinese	Reading	8	8	8	8	1,280
	Composition			2	2	160
	Handwriting	2	2	2	2	320
Maths		6	6	6	6	960
Science				1	1	80
P.E.		1	1	1	1	160
Music & Arts		1	1	1	1	160
Total Periods (per week)		19	19	22	22	3,280
Extra Curricular Activities		1	1	1	1	

As to the methodology, the teacher is asked to choose the best way which suits the nonformal system. Besides direct teaching, regular tutoring is carried out for the scattered drop-outs. In some pastoral and fishing areas, there are learning groups. The children's self-learning is usually helped by their parents if they are literate, or other older persons. In rural areas we persist in using the method of "learning for using" on a solid foundation of basic knowledge. In some of the small cities and towns, radio and TV programmes are often used: after listening to a story over the radio, the teacher picks out some useful expressions and explains them, which helps the children to understand.

2.3 Structure, Monitoring and Evaluation

The formal and nonformal systems have similar structures. The nonformal is governed by the local educational administration, mostly by the village government, which decides the number of nonformal classes to be set up according to their needs, but the general plans are determined by the central authorities.

The state will, however, sometimes delegate responsibility to a provincial administration. Some local government even takes the form of signing contracts with villages, and in turn, the villages with schools. Those who have successfully fulfilled the task will be rewarded while those who fail to do so will be criticized.

Xizang (Tibet), for example, has set up more than 56 nonformal classes in Zha Nang County, which has a population of 327,000. This county has become one of the best counties in the universalization of primary education. It has recently been highly praised by the provincial educational administration.

The forms of evaluation and accreditation are quite different from place to place. Generally speaking, in each class or group, there must be a final examination of the required courses, and the children will be given some kind of certificate to show that they have passed the examination. The graduates of such classes and stations are allowed to continue their study in formal schools or elementary vocational schools.

Evaluation usually takes the following forms:

- Final examinations for students and certificates which credit the students as qualified primary graduates
- Teachers' self-evaluation of their work
- Teachers' evaluation by the principals or supervisors who observe their class work
- Evaluation of village schools and stations by local governments, with resultant comments

2.4 Human Resources and Financial Resources

2.4.1 *Human Resources*

Teachers in the nonformal system are generally:

a. graduates of teaching colleges

These form the major part of the teaching force in formal schools but very few are assigned to the nonformal educational system.

b. part-time teachers from formal schools

In each village, there is usually a central formal school. The teachers there have the duty to help in nonformal education. We call them part-time teachers. They are encouraged to do more and to set examples to the nonformal teachers. This is the essential part of the nonformal system.

c. retired workers

In China, cadres and teachers may retire at the age of 55-60. Those who are still healthy enough to continue their work can be further employed by schools. There are no accurate statistics of such workers, but they have become an important element in education. In Yunan Province, there are 90,000 primary school teachers, of whom 1/9 are retired workers. The schools or tutoring stations pay these teachers properly.

d. government cadres

The state has called on cadres at different levels to support education. Cadres and even research workers have answered the call. In 1985 and 1986, 2,000 cadres from the central government have already been sent to schools, while Shanghai and other cities have made similar efforts. The significance of this move does not only lie in helping the schools, but also in providing a chance for cadres to keep close contact with the people. It is a good way to strengthen the ties between the government and the people.

Today there are more than 7.5 million teachers of primary and secondary education, of whom 10% are working in the nonformal system. Although the number appears large, the quantity of teachers still falls short of the needs of the popularization of compulsory education. Teaching colleges should be further developed and the social status of teachers must be raised so as to make teaching an appealing profession.

2.4.2 *Financial Resources*

Lack of funds is another difficulty in our nonformal system. The government agrees that the growth rate of the total outlay for education should be higher than that of regular state revenue and that the average educational expenditure per student should be increased in consequence. In the past few years, the government at various levels has collected education funds in urban and rural areas. Individuals and sectors of society have also donated funds for educational activities.

The collection of funds needs active members. Here is an example. One of the government workers, Qin Shi Yi, in Lin Fen Prefecture, Shanxi Province, has collected more than 10 million yuan for elementary education during recent years. He left his footprints all over the 19 counties of Lin Fen. He walked about 25,000 li (approx. 13,500 km) to propagate the importance of elementary education in mountain areas. With the money he collected, 2,000 schools have been set up or repaired. People call Qin the present Wu Hsun -- a famous person who devoted his life to begging funds for education.

In Lufeng County, Guandong Province, 40,000 yuan were collected to help the 3,446 school-aged children in 1986. In that year, a national total of 4,000,000,000 yuan has been collected to support education. During the Seventh Five Year Plan beginning in that year, the total outlay for education should amount to 116.6 billion yuan, 72% more than in the previous Five Year Plan.

So far, a very small portion of the fund is used in the nonformal educational system. In Inner Mongolia, for example, in 1986 the local government allocated 38,000,000 yuan to run different types of school, but only 4% to the nonformal system.

There are also urgent needs for facilities in nonformal schools, namely desks and chairs, blackboards and chalk and so on. Most of the material resources are far from adequate. There are some schools furnished with clay desks and chairs. Children write on the ground with their fingers.

Besides all the above mentioned resources, there exists self-support in schools. For example, in the simple boarding schools in Tibet, students plant vegetables and raise pigs and chickens to improve their own living standards. Local variations are of great assistance in implementing nonformal education, and such flexibility could greatly assist formal education and the remedial education of adults, including literacy programmes.

2.5 Linkage

The link between the two systems is examinations. The certificates assist graduates to proceed to the next stage of education, training and employment. Besides this, the teachers of the two systems are interchanged, particularly by the teachers of formal schools going to nonformal ones to help the pupils.

3. RECOMMENDATIONS

3.1 Local Government Acceptance of Nonformal Education

More attention should be paid to the rural regions located in pastoral, border, mountain or national minority areas. Since the founding of our country we have accumulated experience with formal schools, but not with nonformal. Many people hold the traditional idea that only by running formal schools can education be popularized, but the experiences of some local governments have shown that leading members must give up their old ideas and speed up the work of universalization of education. More attention should therefore be paid to nonformal education. Many counties and villages have proved that nonformal education has played an active part in the implementation of the Law of Compulsory Education, even in economically under-developed areas.

3.2 Parents' Attitudes

Parents should be convinced that education will benefit both their children and their families in the long run. In our work we found that "short-sightedness" on the part of some parents is one of the troubles in popularizing education. Some parents ask their children to drop out of school to seek employment while others, influenced by feudal ideology, pull their daughters out of school. We must patiently persuade them to give up their old ideas so that they will voluntarily send their children to study. This can be done. In a small county in Heilungjiang, for example, the local government carried out an investigation which showed that 90% of the children have acquired skills in the nonformal classes and, in return, the living standards of the families have been greatly improved. Despite a natural disaster, each farmer made an income of about 412 yuan in 1985. The farmers highly praised the achievements of nonformal education, and they got rid of their old ideas.

3.3 The Need for Patience

Patient, meticulous work and effective measures should be undertaken by the government, teachers and schools to raise the enrolment percentage. Sometimes a year's work ends up by helping only one child back to school: in Hu County, Shanxi Province, one of the nonformal teachers spent a year to help one of the early leavers to continue his studies in 1984. After the death of his parents, the child was burdened with heavy housework. He could not go to school. The teacher solved the problem by asking the neighbours to help the child. Bit by bit, the enrolment percentage was gradually raised.

3.4 Resources and Development

Through investigation, we have found that practical difficulties still lie ahead. The lack of qualified teachers results in low quality of education. Lack of funds and materials hinders the setting up of schools, as well as teaching centres and stations. Finally, as nonformal education is still a new project in China, we lack a whole set of experiences from which we can learn, leaving a weak link in the chain of the educational system.

3.5 Long-term Possibilities

Through our rough analysis, we can see that a new tendency of nonformal education has emerged. That is, the more concentrated, the better. During a certain period, the nonformal system will remain a good supplement to the formal one. But in line with the improvement of the social and economic condition, more newly built boarding schools will gradually take the place of nonformal education. This will guarantee the universalization of education.

APPENDIX

The Main Points of the Law of Compulsory Education

1. Intentions of Compulsory Education

   By the end of this century, school-aged children in most areas will be educated under the nine-year education system and the cultural level of all nationalities in China will be upgraded to new heights.

2. Steps of implementation of the Law

   With the uneven economic and cultural development, our goal will have to be attained step by step. We roughly divide the 29 provinces into three categories.

   a. In cities and other economically developed areas where the population makes up one fourth of China's total, nine-year compulsory education should be made universal by 1990.

   b. In the less economically developed areas (nearly half of China's population), the task must be fulfilled by around 1995.

   c. In a few under-developed areas, primary education should be widespread by the end of this century.

3. Measures that guarantee the right for school-aged children to receive education

   a. The state, society, schools and families must guarantee the right of the school-aged children to receive education. If not, they should be punished.

   b. Schools must be reasonably located for the convenience of the children.

   c. No tuition fee will be charged.

   d. Children from poor families will receive a stipend.

e. Special schools for blind, deaf and mute, and mentally disabled children will be set up.

f. The state enterprises, institutions and other sectors of society should be encouraged to set up schools of their own.

g. The recruitment of school-aged children for work by any organization or individual is strictly prohibited. (This, in the long run, will benefit both the children and their families.)

h. No official is allowed to abuse the power to misappropriate funds earmarked for education.

i. School buildings should not be used for purposes other than education.

j. Insult, assault and battery of teachers are strictly forbidden.

Those who violate the above mentioned stipulations will be punished according to the merits of their cases; those who are involved in criminal cases should be punished according to the Law.

CHAPTER 4

A CASE STUDY FROM INDIA

by

Y. N. Chaturvedi
Joint Secretary
Department of Education
Ministry of Human Resources Development

New Delhi
India

1. FORMAL EDUCATION

1.1 Educational Policy

Educational tradition in India harks back to the dawn of civilization - education not only for survival, but also for a life of aesthetic beauty, of literature and sculpture, and of science. Oral and incidental learning were part of people's lives - at hearth and home, work and worship, fairs and festivals. However, the masses were excluded from formal instruction, which was divorced from the world of work and was undertaken not in the people's spoken tongue but through classical languages. After achieving independence in 1947, India undertook the gigantic task of national reconstruction, of bringing about socio-economic transformation based on the principles of democracy, social justice and secularism, with education as one of its most powerful instruments. Free and compulsory education for all children up to 14 years of age (elementary education) was laid down as a Directive Principle in the Indian Constitution. Since then, the provision of universal elementary education has been the preoccupation and priority of policy makers.

The National Policy of 1968 marked a significant step in the history of education since independence. It aimed at reform and reorganization of the educational system in order that education might better serve the goals of national progress and integration. It aimed at:

- improvement of the quality of education at all stages
- inculcation of moral values through the curricula
- development of a closer relationship between education and the life of the people
- greater attention upon science and technology

Elementary education is the most crucial stage of education, spanning the first eight years of schooling and

laying the foundation for the personality, attitude, confidence, habits, learning skills and communicating capabilities of pupils. The basic skills of reading, writing and arithmetic are acquired at this stage. Values are internalized and environmental consciousness is sharpened.

Another area of emphasis was Adult Literacy. Removal of adult illiteracy has always been accepted as an imperative goal to be achieved through the implementation of broad-based, functionally relevant educational programmes. Recognizing that without each individual's participation in the processes and practices that increase his productivity, the goals of social development will continue to remain unattained, the 1968 Policy aimed at universal literacy through a mass movement involving the entire administrative and political apparatus.

1.2 Educational Institutions

The number of educational institutions in the country in 1984-85 is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Number of Educational Institutions in India, 1984-85

	Level of Institutions	Number
(a)	Pre-Primary Schools	10,274
(b)	Primary Schools	519,701
(c)	Upper Primary Schools	129,879
(d)	Secondary Schools	47,816
(e)	Higher Secondary Schools	15,078
(f)	Arts, Science and Commerce Colleges	4,005
(g)	Universities	119

In addition, there were 16 institutions in the higher education sector which were deemed to have the status of univer-

sities, and 15 other institutions of national importance. The number of teacher training institutions for elementary school teachers in 1984-85 was 954 and for secondary/higher secondary teachers 367. The total enrolment in 1984-85 was 84 million at the primary stage, 26 million at the middle stage, 14 million at the secondary/higher secondary stage, about 3 million at the degree level and 300,000 at the post-graduate level, which does not include enrolment in professional institutions. The enrolment in teacher training institutions was about 78,700 for secondary/higher secondary teacher training and about 86,000 at the elementary teacher training level.

1.3 Enrolment

The national enrolment ratios in 1984-85 at the primary and middle stages are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Enrolment Ratios: Percentage of Enrolment of the Respective Age-Group Population

Classes/Age-Group	1984-85		
	Boys	Girls	Total
I-V (6-11 years)	110.7	76.7	94.1
VI-VIII (11-14 years)	64.0	36.3	50.6

An analysis of this data would indicate that during the last three decades, the number of education institutions in India has increased from 230 to 690 thousand - a threefold increase. A large number of these institutions, 504,000, constituting 73% of the total, are primary schools. The number increased from 209,671 in 1950-51 to 495,007 in 1981-82. In the period 1950-53, primary schools registered an increase of 2.4 times. The overall percentage increase between 1970-71 and 1981-82 was 21.1.

The number of middle schools increased from 13,460 in 1950-51 to 123,300 in 1982-83, thus registering an annual increase of 7.2%. Whereas in 1950-51 there was one middle school

for every 15 primary schools, this ratio had improved to 1:4 in 1982-83.

There has been an all-round increase in the enrolment of both sexes at all levels of education. The total student population increased from 28 million in 1950-51 to 114 million in 1982-83, yielding a growth rate of 4.5% per annum. The total enrolment in classes I to V increased from 19,155,000 in 1950-51 to 73,563,000 in 1981-82, indicating an increase of 3.8 times. The enrolment in classes VI to VIII increased from 3,126,000 in 1950-51 to 21,055,000 in 1981-82. During this period, girls' enrolment increased at a compound growth rate of 5.5% while the comparable rate in the case of boys was 3.9% per annum. The percentage of girls enrolled in classes I to V rose from 28.1% in 1950-51 to 38.86% in 1981-82, while in classes VI to VIII it increased from 17.1% to 33.65%. However, due to the initial disparity in the enrolment of boys and girls, the absolute magnitude of girls' enrolment is still less than that of boys.

1.4 Retention and Drop-out

It is important to examine school retention rates as they represent the real gains made by expanding facilities. While the increase in enrolment at the elementary stage recorded during the three decades after independence has been satisfactory, the problem of stagnation and drop-out has been more or less negating the progress achieved. Studies conducted have indicated that the holding power of elementary schools is very low. Against the total enrolment in class I in 1960-61, only 37.1% were on the rolls of class V in 1964-65 and only 24.2% in 1967-68, indicating a stagnation and drop-out rate of 62.9% for the primary stage and approximately 75.8% for the entire elementary stage. At the primary level, the retention of boys is improving only at a very slow rate. The retention for classes I to V improved from 33.5% in the case of the 1968 batch to 38.6% for the 1974 batch. Most of the gains in retention have been secured since the 70s.

1.5 Literacy Rate

The literacy rate during the post-independence era increased from 16.67% in 1951 to 36.23% in 1987. The number of

literates thus increased fourfold from 60 million in 1951 to 248 million in 1987. There is, unfortunately, glaring disparity between male and female literacy, the former being 46.9% and the latter 24.8%. This is more accentuated in the rural areas (40.8% and 18% respectively), than in the urban areas (65.8% and 47.8% respectively). Disparities between States are also remarkable - Kerala has the best literacy percentage (70.4%) while Rajasthan is the worst off (24.48%). The female literacy rate in Rajasthan is as low as 5.46%.

Unesco studies have revealed that an adult literacy rate of 70% is the critical threshold for universal primary education. Illiterate parents are prone to avoid enrolling their children und to take them out of school if it causes them any inconvenience. The link between literacy and primary education is well established. The failure in universalizing primary education contributes to an increase in the figure of adult literacy, and adult illiterates fail to provide the proper learning environment that motivates children to attend school. One increasingly recognized cause for the failure of UPE is the lack of an effective post-literacy and adult education programme. Any attempt to provide primary education must, therefore, adopt a holistic approach to the eradication of illiteracy. Specifically, an effective education policy for primary education must:

- enlarge the scope of primary education to include part-time nonformal instruction to ensure the provision of comparable educational facilities to the deprived and disadvantaged groups;

- reorganize primary education through participation of the people and significantly improve its internal efficiency and outcomes; and

- link literacy and continuing education programmes in support of the UPE thrust in a holistic approach that will ensure education for all.

2. DEVELOPMENT OF NONFORMAL EDUCATION

2.1 Central Government Initiatives

The initial intention of opening new schools so that children in all neighbourhoods could avail themselves of education did not materialize, and localities with schools still continue to have both the unenrolled and those who have dropped out. These children grow into adult illiterates. In addition, despite phenomenal expansion some areas remain unserved by schools. Therefore, in the early seventies the realization came about that total reliance on the formal system would not lead to universal elementary education or eradication of illiteracy. It was realized that some sections of the population, such as girls, tribals, working children and children in the hilly and desert areas, have specific problems because of which they cannot attend whole-day schools or follow a very structured curriculum and teaching process. Therefore, experiments were designed by the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) and other academic organizations to develop a flexible and need-based nonformal educational system at elementary level which would allow children to learn at their own pace. Soon thereafter, the attractiveness of a system answering this description was realized at the secondary stage also, and the institution known as an Open School came into existence in 1979. Similarly, a large programme of Adult Education was developed in the 70s on the same premise.

At the national level an attempt was made to synthesize the innovative experimentation done in a number of States during the earlier years. The Government of India appointed a Working Group on Elementary Education in 1977. The Group estimated that there were 45 million non-enrolled children who should be brought into the school system in the next five years if universal elementary education was to be achieved in the next ten years. It took note of the predominantly socio-economic reasons causing boys and girls not to be enrolled in schools, and of the high drop-out rate caused by a variety of factors, and recommended that every child should continue to learn in the age-group 6-14 on a full-time basis, if possible, and on a part-time basis, if necessary. The Government of India accordingly worked out a detailed programme of nonformal education under which assistance was made available to the States for setting up nonformal education centres

and running them. To begin with, the system of nonformal education was conceived of as an alternative system which would support the school system, and its cost-effectiveness was one of its features. Since about 75% of the unenrolled children in the country were in the nine States of Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, and West Bengal, the scheme sought to assist these States under the programme of Nonformal Education. It was to be a highly flexible system which would relate the curriculum to the life situation of the children to ensure its relevance. One nonformal education centre was envisaged for about 25 learners. The educational design envisaged that the five-year curriculum of the primary stage would be condensed into a two-year curriculum based on 19 graded units. At the upper primary level no condensing was envisaged and, therefore, the duration of the nonformal course was to be three years. At both these levels it was envisaged that a child would progress at his own pace. There was provision for an instructor for each nonformal education centre. In contrast to a primary school teacher, this instructor was not required to have a teacher training degree or certificate, and his required educational qualifications were also less. However, in a large number of cases the teacher of a neighbouring school was the instructor at the nonformal education centre also. The nonformal education centre was located in any convenient place in the community - which could be the school or a place made available by the community, or even the house of the instructor. The timing was flexible, with the duration of instruction being two to three hours daily. Mostly, the nonformal education centres functioned in the afternoon or the evening. An instructor, because of lower qualifications and the part-time nature of the job, was paid a modest wage of 105 to 125 Rupees per month. The nonformal education centre was given assistance for acquiring teaching-learning materials such as blackboard, maps, charts, globes, textbooks and lighting facilities. There was provision for a supervisor with a fixed wage of about 600 Rupees per month for every 40 nonformal education centres. Assistance under the scheme was provided for strengthening the teacher training institutions at the elementary school level, which were supposed to impart training to instructors for nonformal education. Similar assistance was provided for the SCERTs to enable them to provide academic support to the programme in the States. Support was also given for strengthening the Directorate of Education, to enable it to handle this new and large workload of nonformal education.

The scheme was started in 1979-80. Under the scheme 50% assistance was provided by the Government of India to the nine educationally backward States to set up co-educational nonformal education centres. The remaining 50% of the expenses were borne by the State Governments concerned. Simultaneously, realizing that non-governmental organizations (NGOs) were more suited to designing locally specific teaching-learning material and to managing a highly flexible programme such as nonformal education, specific attention was paid to mobilizing NGOs for the success of the nonformal programme. With this intention assistance was extended to NGOs on a 100% basis within the norms developed to establish and manage nonformal education centres in their area. Also realizing that the highly flexible nature of the nonformal education programme required the continuing development of alternative strategies which needed to differ from place to place in view of the large diversity obtaining in the country, the scheme envisaged assistance on a 100% basis to educational research institutions for taking up innovative projects to conduct action research, and to develop alternative curricula and teaching-learning materials.

2.2 Special Provision for Girls

In 1983-84 it was realized that since girls constituted the largest single group among the unenrolled and the drop-outs, and since their problems were quite distinct, a specific effort was required for bringing them into the fold of nonformal education. Thus a new category of nonformal education centres in the same nine States was introduced in 1983-84, whereby 90% assistance was offered to these States for setting up and running nonformal education centres exclusively for girls. The programme was implemented on a fairly large scale, and the number of nonformal education centres assisted under this scheme up to 1985 in the nine States is shown in Table 3.

In addition to these centres in the nine States financially assisted by the Government of India, many other States have implemented the nonformal education programme, and the number of centres set up by them during this period was about 20,000.

Table 3. Number of Centres Assisted under NFE Programme up to 1985

Name of State	Number of NFE centres assisted		
	Composite	Exclusively for girls	Voluntary organizations
1. Andhra Pradesh	16,440	1,012	338
2. Assam	16,146	1,000	-
3. Bihar	22,520	7,500	-
4. Jammu & Kashmir	1,835	60	-
5. Madhya Pradesh	11,512	3,768	260
6. Orissa	7,560	560	-
7. Rajasthan	14,685	3,000	640
8. Uttar Pradesh	32,000	3,200	215
9. West Bengal	18,719	600	-

2.3 Organization of Nonformal Education Centres

Thus the nonformal education programme implemented between 1979-80 and 1986-87 has the following features:

- One nonformal education centre for every 20-25 learners in the age group 9 to 14, although the age limit is not strictly insisted upon;
- One instructor in each centre, who is generally a part-time worker and who is in some cases a teacher in the neighbouring school;
- Teaching-learning materials in each centre, lighting facilities and free books and stationery for learners;
- Flexibility in location and timings;
- One supervisor, a part-time worker, for about 40 non-

formal centres.

- Nonformal centres supervised and managed at district level by the District Education Officer, and at State level by the Directorate of Education.

2.4 The Curriculum of Nonformal Education Centres

2.4.1 *The Formal Model*

In the formal education model the curriculum and textbooks of the formal system are used by nonformal education centres. Children are encouraged to attend an examination along with children from formal schools at the end of the course for class V. The instructor's fee is paid half every month and the other half depending on the performance of the children in the terminal examinations.

2.4.2 *The Condensed Formal Model*

In the condensed version of the formal education model, important topics and themes from the syllabi for social sciences, natural sciences, mathematics and language are covered in only one book. The evaluation of learners is done on the basis of this book and they are encouraged to attend the final examination along with learners from formal schools at the end of class V.

2.4.3 *The Integrated Model*

In the integrated model the emphasis is on improvement of the quality of life and themes for this purpose are identified from the formal syllabus. Fresh instructional material is designed by integrating the content in social sciences, natural sciences, languages, physical and social environment and needs and problems. There is a separate book for mathematics. Learners are encouraged to attend the formal school examination for class V but it is not compulsory.

2.4.4 *The Need and Problem-Based Model*

The Need and problem-based model uses a thematic approach to the preparation of learning material. The concepts and the

content are related to problems of life, and subject boundaries are not observed. The evaluation of the learners is done along with that of the formal system for class V.

2.4.5 *The Developmental Model*

The developmental model followed by most of the NGOs emphasises national development in its curriculum. Developmental activities in the area are prominently covered in the curriculum, and there is interaction and collaboration with developmental agencies in curriculum negotiation. In the evaluation of learners, participation in developmental activities is taken into consideration along with academic assessment.

2.5 Nonformal Education beyond Elementary Level

2.5.1 *The Open School*

The nonformal education programme described above has concentrated on ensuring universal elementary education to children until they attain the age of 14. Within this, the emphasis has been on nonformal education at the primary level. Of the nonformal education centres that have been started, 90% or more are at the primary level.

Just as at elementary level, there are, however, learners in higher age-groups who for various reasons cannot attend whole-day schools. For this category of learners an open school was established experimentally in Delhi in 1979. The school uses correspondence instruction supplemented by periodic contact teaching, with audio and audio-visual technology now being introduced. The majority of students are from around Delhi, although students from all over the country may enrol. In 1983 the first batch of 1,679 students completed their course, and by 1986 enrolment had increased to 9,580. Fees are charged, but these are kept low, and girls and all members of Scheduled Castes and Tribes are exempted. The Government of India meets more than half the school's costs.

Any student over 14 years of age may join, and those who have not passed class VIII but have competence equivalent to class V are given a bridging course. There is greater flexi-

bility than in the formal secondary school, both in combinations of subjects and in the timing of examinations. In the Open School these are held twice a year, and students are not obliged to sit all subjects at once. They thus accumulate credits towards the final Secondary School Leaving Certificate, and can proceed at their own pace. The academic programme of the Open School has gained wide acceptance, and it has now expanded to cover the higher secondary stage also.

2.5.2 *The Open University*

Logically following up the initiative at the elementary school level and at the secondary/higher secondary level, and influenced by the success of programmes in many other countries, it has been decided to have a flexible and nonformal system at the degree and postgraduate level also. In 1985 the Indira Gandhi National Open University was established. After initial preparations the University enrolled the first batch of students in 1987-88 in two courses, one on management and the other on distance education. The University is expected to increase progressively the number of courses available to learners, and it will broadly follow the same strategy of using correspondence courses with periodic contact programmes and quite intensive use of audio and audio-visual technology. The concept of the Open University has already caught on in the country and quite a few State Governments have already announced the setting up of Open Universities in their areas.

3. ADULT EDUCATION

The Nonformal Education Programme at the elementary level, the Open School system at the secondary and higher secondary level, and the Open University at the degree and postgraduate levels constitute a chain of educational facilities by recourse to which students can improve themselves educationally without having to give up their other occupations. However, due to universal primary education not having been achieved there is a large number of adult illiterates in the country. It is realized that an adult illiterate population is a poor tool for the development of the country and a hurdle to social reconstruction. The Constitution of India envisages it to be a socialist, secular and democratic republic. Obviously these values, and a blending of rights and duties in

the conception and conduct of the citizens, can come about more easily if the adult population is at least literate.

With these objectives in view, the National Adult Education Programme was launched on 2nd October 1978. The focus in the programme has been on the coverage of adults in the age-group 15-35 years because of their immediate relevance for the developmental process in the country. The strategy in the Adult Education Programme has been:

- to cover districts with illiteracy rates below the national average. Priority is given to the target groups of women, migrant labourers and other weaker sections of the community;

- to enlist larger participation of students in the Adult Education Programme;

- to involve NGOs more energetically in the conduct of the Adult Education Programme;

- to strengthen the post-literacy programme to avoid relapse into illiteracy of the neo-literates;

- to utilize electronic media and folk media for motivating the adult learner.

The Adult Education Programme contains three mutually reinforcing elements: literacy, functionality and awareness. While attending to the literacy aspects, orientation is given on the features of the Constitution of India, the cultural background is reinforced, and participants are encouraged to learn about health and family planning, the importance of conserving the environment and the desirability of developing a scientific mentality. While attending to the functionality aspects of the programme, an attempt is made to impart an element of vocational skill to the adult learners. In the awareness aspect the adult learners are motivated and guided to become aware of the laws and government policies so that they know what they can do and how they can remove their handicaps.

The Adult Education Programme broadly has three phases. In the first phase of 300 to 350 hours emphasis is on imparting literacy and general education. In the second phase of about

150 hours literacy skills are reinforced. Wider education is attempted at this stage, and the component of vocational skill is introduced. In the third phase, consisting of about 100 hours, an attempt is made at self-reliance in literacy and functionality. The ability of learners increases at this stage and they develop analytical capabilities.

4. THE NEW NATIONAL POLICY ON EDUCATION

An examination of the educational programmes would indicate that although each programme had its justification, the interrelationships and mutual support mechanisms were not worked out very systematically. Also, massive changes in the educational perspective dictated a fresh look at the educational system as a whole. Therefore, the formulation of a New Educational Policy was taken up in 1985 and the policy was finalized in 1986. This has taken an integrated view of the educational system and of related sub-systems within it as, for example, the nonformal education system at the elementary level, the open school system at the school level, the open university system at the higher education level, and the adult education system. It replaces the earlier National Education Policy of 1968. The new policy emphasises the aspect of equality and the centrality of the learner in the educational process. The policy envisages that by 1990 all children who attain the age of about 11 years should have had education up to class V, that is, the primary stage or its equivalent through the nonformal system. Similarly, it has been envisaged that by 1995 all children who attain the age of 14 years will have had the benefit of eight years of schooling or its equivalent through the nonformal system. The new policy has recognized that despite all efforts some children will continue to find it impossible to attend full-time schools. It has, therefore, recognized the inevitability of developing a Nonformal Education Programme which in size is large enough to meet the requirements of all the learners in this category and which can impart education of good quality. The new policy contains the following statement about nonformal education:

- A large and systematic programme of nonformal education will be launched for school drop-outs, for children from habitations without schools, working children and girls who cannot attend whole-day schools.

- Modern technological aids will be used to improve the learning environment of NFE centres. Talented and dedicated young men and women from the local community will be chosen to serve as instructors, and particular attention paid to their training. Steps will be taken to facilitate their entry into the formal system in deserving cases. All necessary measures will be taken to ensure that the quality of nonformal education is comparable with formal education.

- Effective steps will be taken to provide a framework for the curriculum on the lines of the national core curriculum, but based on the needs of the learners related to the local environment. Learning material of high quality will be developed and provided free of charge to all pupils. NFE programmes will provide a participatory learning environment, and activity-based learning.

- Much more of the work of running NFE centres will be done through voluntary agencies. The provision of funds to these agencies will be adequate and timely.

5. THE REORGANIZATION OF PROGRAMMES AFTER THE NEW POLICY

5.1 Quality of Education

To implement the relevant section of the new policy, a realistic programme of nonformal education has been developed. This is based on the requirement that nonformal education should be comparable in quality with formal schooling. To improve the quality of education modern technological tools such as audio-visual aids, audio cassette players, etc., will be used. The essential characteristics of the revised programme shall be organizational flexibility, relevance of curriculum, diversity in learning activities and situations, and decentralization of management. It is envisaged that more effort will be devoted to developing a regular programme of continuous learner evaluation and certification so as to allow the learners to join the formal school system at various stages if they so desire.

In the revised programme of Nonformal Education a qualitative change is being attempted in regard to the choice of the instructor. The programme envisages that the instructor is to be a local, motivated person who is acceptable to the community. Since girls constitute the largest single group among the non-enrolled, the number of femal instructors should be sharply increased to facilitate the enrolment and retention of girls in the nonformal education programme. Note has been taken of the inadequate programme of training of nonformal education instructors in the earlier programme. The revised programme takes cognizance of the importance of both initial and recurring training. For this purpose and also in order to strengthen the arrangements for the training of teachers in the school system it is proposed that District Institutes of Educational Training be created. These institutes will have a branch for the nonformal educational programme, which will take responsibility for the training of nonformal education instructors and for the academic support, guidance, monitoring and evaluation of the nonformal education programme in the district. While training for some of the instructors will be imparted in the institute itself, considering the large number of instructors the DIET will largely concentrate on identifying resource persons (who may be teachers in the secondary schools), training them as trainers and organizing training in neighbouring villages for small batches of nonformal education instructors.

The revised programme accepts the central importance of quality of education rather than that of cost-effectiveness. It therefore envisages an increase in the supply of teaching-learning materials to each centre. Under the revised programme each nonformal education centre will have the following facilities:

- paid instructor
- fuel for lighting
- petromax / lanterns
- teaching materials
- equipment:

  table and chair for teacher
  textbooks for learners

stationery
a box of books
mats for learners

- training for instructor

- supervision

The NFE should result in provision of education comparable in quality with formal schooling. Learning material of high quality will be developed, taking into account the fact that children who work have several assets on which their education should be built. Organizational flexibility, relevance of curriculum, diversity in learning activities related to the learners' needs, and decentralization of management must be ensured. This approach will be characterized by the following features:

- a learner-centred approach, with the instructor as a facilitator;

- emphasis on learning rather than teaching, for which purpose the capacity of children to learn from each other will be highlighted;

- organization of activities which enable learners to progress at their own speed;

- use of efficient techniques to ensure a fast pace of learning;

- provision of proper lighting arrangement at the NFE centres and necessary equipment;

- stress on continuous learner evaluation and establishment of evaluation centres for evaluation and certification of learners;

- scholastic achievements (particularly language and mathematics) which follow the norms set in the formal system, both because of their desirability per se and because they are essential for entry into the formal structure;

- provision of free textbooks and stationery to all pupils.

5.2 The Involvement of NGOs

It is contemplated that there will be no uniformly prescribed teaching programme for any State as a whole. Each project, and maybe individual centres within a project, will be encouraged to choose any one out of the many models of nonformal education developed in the country, or even to develop a new one. Since all these features of the new programme of nonformal education require a degree of flexibility in order to meet the specific requirements of the immediate environment, the non-governmental organizations' role becomes much more important. The revised programme of nonformal education, therefore, envisages the increased involvement of NGOs. They will be involved not only in setting up and running nonformal education centres, but also in launching innovative projects for the development of new models of nonformal education and the conduct of action research. As before, 100% assistance from the Central Government is to be extended to NGOs to carry out these programmes.

5.3 The Integration

The eventual integration of Universal Elementary Education with Adult Education is envisaged in the concept of continuing education through a Jana Shikshan Nilayam (JSN, Continuing Education Centre), which may be established for each cluster of villages with a total population of about 5,000. The JSN will create a learning environment by providing a library and reading room and a space for cultural and recreational activities. The macro-planning of continuing education necessarily recognizes the commonality of the objectives of nonformal elementary and adult education: the more successful the universalization of elementary education, the less the need for adult literacy provision. If the stress is placed upon catching the older child in the NFE age group and the younger adult in the literacy age group, while chasing the targets under both programmes simultaneously, it may be possible - with the support of increased enrolment in schools and greater coverage by JSNs - to achieve literacy up to the age-group of the 35-year-olds by 1995.

6. VERTICAL AND HORIZONTAL LINKAGES BETWEEN THE NONFORMAL SYSTEMS AND THE FORMAL SYSTEM

In the overall educational system one can see the unity in strategy. This is that children should take education in schools and colleges, but that those who cannot do so for some reason should not be deprived of the opportunity. Corresponding nonformal levels have therefore been developed. For elementary schools, for example, it is the Nonformal Centres, for secondary schools it is the Open School, for the university it is the Open University, and finally those who have missed all these levels are taken care of under the Adult Education Programme. Bridges between the formal and nonformal systems have been provided at all levels so that a learner can shift from the formal to the nonformal and vice versa. As a further development, nonformal and formal systems are being brought together under specific programmes. For example, in the programme of vocational education for students at secondary level the thrust is for such programmes to be in the schools, but simultaneously nonformal vocational programmes are also to be implemented through NGOs, which will have more flexibility in terms of age and qualification of learners, duration of courses, work experience placements, etc. Similarly, in science education and environmental education the programme in the formal system is being supplemented by the projects of NGOs which impart nonformal education to the students and the community. Thus, the main thrust of the programmes deriving from the new education policy is the development of integration between nonformal education at the elementary level and the Adult Education Programme. Failure in elementary education leads to adult illiteracy, and in turn illiterate parents are less enthusiastic about the schooling of their children. Thus the two programmes have a cause and effect relationship and are therefore being made mutually supportive. Simultaneously, nonformal education at the elementary level is becoming the base for a parallel stream of nonformal education reaching up to university level with comparability at every level with the formal system and linkages at terminal stages between corresponding levels of the nonformal and the formal systems.

CHAPTER 5

A CASE STUDY FROM VENEZUELA

by

Ilce Manrique
Department of Adult Education
Ministry of Education

Caracas
Venezuela

1. EDUCATION AND LITERACY

1.1 Literacy Levels

The State has made enormous efforts over the last 28 years to reduce illiteracy. In 1958 we had 2,426,463 persons aged ten years and over who did not know how to read or write: this represented, at the time, a proportion of 56.8%. In 1961 the proportion was 34.8% and by 1971 22.9%.

By 1978 figures indicated that in the age group 15 and over (6,611,306), 1,238,235 were illiterate, which represents 18.7% of the total.

By 1984, the population aged 15 years and over (according to a sample survey conducted in 1985) had reached a total of 10,085,679, of whom 1,201,910 were illiterate: in other words, 11.9% of the total.

According to data provided by the survey, the following were the results obtained for the second half of 1985, in relation to the economically active population aged 15 years and over and the levels of education reached:

- Out of 10,553,192 economically active persons aged 15 years and over, 1,443,374 (13.7%) were functional illiterates, grouped as follows:

  . 1,222,192 absolute illiterates

  . 221,182 with no recognized level of education

The situation is different when we analyse the information on rural and urban areas. Out of a economically active population of 8,476,091, aged 15 and over and located in urban areas, 784,181 were functional illiterates and were divided into the following groups:

- 633,842 total illiterates
- 150,339 with no education at all (of whom 263,959 were employed)

Among the remainder of the population we find that:

- 3,401,196 had primary school education
- 1,924,206 had one to three years of secondary education
- 1,212,734 had four or more years of secondary education
- 153,548 had technical education
- 123,105 had undergone teacher training
- 43,356 had been through other areas of education
- 832,454 had high level studies
- 1,308 stated that they had not reached any level of education

In the rural area, out of an economically active population of 2,077,889 aged 15 and over, 659,193 were functional illiterates distributed as follows:

- 587,350 absolute illiterates
- 71,843 with no recognized educational level
- only 342,301 were employed

In the rest of the economically active population aged 15 and over, it was observed that:

- 1,062,025 had primary school education
- 226,205 had one to three years of secondary education
- 86,706 had four years or more of secondary education
- 9,196 had technical training
- 11,773 had undergone teacher training

- 19,296 had high level studies

- 508 stated that they had not reached any educational level

1.2 The Educational System

The Organic Law of Education establishes an educational system divided into levels and modalities. The levels are: Pre-Elementary School, Basic Education (1st to 9th grade), Diversified and Vocational Secondary Education (10th to 12th grade) and High Level Education. The modalities are the following: Special Education, Adult Education, Arts, Military Training, Training of Clergy and Out-of-School Education.

1.2.1 *Pre-Elementary School*

This is the stage previous to Basic Education. The State has made enormous efforts in order to expand this level of education. In the year 1983-84 the number of students registered at this level was 523,318, with 19,448 teachers in 602 school areas.

1.2.2 *Basic Education*

This is formally an extension of the obligatory education term to nine years, and a re-structuring of the former primary system and the first three years of secondary school. The objective is to establish a common curriculum with common courses which constitute the bases of this level. At the same time, it is meant to include new courses adapted to each sector and to propose a different methodology which takes into account the characteristics of the rural, aboriginal and border population. In this sense, the basic education level guarantees a balanced education of the citizen, which is necessary for the country, and it contributes to regional development.

The Report of the Ministry of Education for the school year 1984-85 indicates that 2,730,333 students had attended this level (1st to 6th grade) and 754,253 the 7th to 9th grade.

2. BASIC EDUCATION IN SCHOOLS

2.1 Levels of Basic Education

With its implications for organization and quality, the level of Basic Education is an innovative aspect of the Organic Law of Education promulgated in 1980. Its objectives are stated in Article 21, which reads:

> "Basic Education pursues the balanced education of students by developing their abilities and scientific, technical, human and artistic capacities. Its tasks are to guide and initiate students in disciplines and skills which lead them to develop useful social activities; and to stimulate the will to learn and to develop in accordance with students' own abilities.
>
> Basic Education shall last no less than nine years.
>
> The Ministry of Education is responsible for organizing, at this level, trade and craft courses which will help in the development of students." 1

Article 9 of the Law establishes that Basic Education is compulsory.

2.2 The Basic Education Study Plan

The Basic Education Study Plan sets out the underlying educational philosophy and links it with the curricular design adopted. It details the intended profile of graduates, the balance between the different areas of science, technology and the humanities, the outlines for the design and development of study programmes, and the integration of school and community. Basic education is divided into three stages which correspond to the stages of evolutionary development of the students; that is, the pedagogical activities respond to the interests and characteristics of the students. Each stage comprises three grades. The first, made up of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd grades, emphasises the development of reading, writing and mathematical abilities among six to ten-year-olds. These cognitive processes contribute to the development of abstract, logical and verbal reasoning and create habits and values.

The second stage, comprising the 4th, 5th and 6th grades, stresses communicative competence, the use of language, the development of logical thought and consolidation of national cultural values. Students are 10 to 13 years old at this stage. The third comprises the 7th, 8th and 9th grades, when students are 13 to 15 years old. Emphasis is placed equally on science, technology and the arts. During this period the student may decide on his future studies or on entry into the job market.

The study plan is divided into three areas or courses. By area we understand the organization of knowledge on the basis of the structure of the plan. Areas are organized into subjects which maintain their own identity but are interdisciplinary: for example, language, social studies and aesthetic education. In other cases, a global approach within the area establishes close relationships between topics common to several subjects, for example, mathematics, physical education or vocational education.

According to regulations in the Organic Law of Education, the study plan for Basic Education in the urban areas is made up of the following areas and courses: Spanish and literature, world history, mathematics, family building and citizenship, aesthetic education, job training, health education, physical education and sports, biology, physics, chemistry and English.

2.3 Vocational Education

This is another innovative aspect of Basic Education. Its objective is to make it possible for the student to value work as an individual, social and significant activity. At each stage, the courses are so designed that the student is educated to be self-sufficient within the limits of his abilities, level of development and his environment. He is also taught to exploit his potential and is given an introduction to a marketable skill in case he does not continue his education beyond Basic Education.

2.4 Statistics of Basic Education in Schools

2.4.1 *Registration*

According to the report of the Ministry of Education, in the year 1984-85, 2,669,797 students were registered in Basic Education (1st to 6th grade). Compared to the previous year, the total increased by 60,583 students, that is 2.2%. The total was divided into groups according to grades:

Total	2,669,797	=	100.00%
First grade	558,440	=	20.91%
Second grade	509,369	=	19.07%
Third grade	472,285	=	17.69%
Fourth grade	428,076	=	16.03%
Fifth grade	381,112	=	14.27%
Sixth grade	320,515	=	12.00%

The number of students registered in the 7th to 9th grades for the same school year were: 7th grade, 314, 965; 8th grade, 243, 207; and 9th grade, 196, 041.

2.4.2 *Drop-out*

In the 1st to 6th grades the rate of drop-out has decreased from 8.8% in 1970 to 5.6% in 1984-85, but this still represents some 150,000 students who have left school. Drop-out is greater in rural areas, for obvious reasons: the need to work, the location of schools and the inability to adapt to school programmes. The rate is higher in the 7th to 9th grades: in 1984-85 it reached 22.2%.

2.4.3 *Repetition*

For the school year 1984-85 the rate of repetition in the first six grades was 5.7%, with the heaviest occurences in the first three grades, and in grades seven to nine it was 12.5%.

2.4.4 *Rate of Retention*

Student retention in Basic Education (1st to 6th grade) for the cohort 1979-84 was:

First grade	550,441	=	100%
Second grade	477,879	=	87%
Third grade	449,603	=	82%
Fourth grade	414,140	=	75%
Fifth grade	369,711	=	67%
Sixth grade	320,515	=	58%

The final figure of 58% represents a slight decrease compared with previous cohorts, where the rate oscillated between 60% and 64%.

The retention rate for students in Basic Education (7th to 9th grade) for the cohort 1980-85 was:

Seventh grade	280,033	=	100%
Eighth grade	204,853	=	73%
Ninth grade	173,744	=	62%

In general, we may say that retention rates have been stable since 1971-76.

3. BASIC EDUCATION FOR ADULTS

3.1 Recent Changes in Provision

Between 1946 and July 1986 the Department of Adult Education offered primary education to adults aged 15 and over who had been unable to complete, or had not attended, primary education at the usual time.

Primary education was given in four continuous courses. Each course lasted one academic year (September-July). The participant attended a class from Monday to Friday, two hours

each night, at the Popular Culture Centres or at the Centres for Cultural Extension.

The Organic Law of Education was promulgated in 1980 and it established that Basic Education is the minimum level of education required for all citizens. The Department of Adult Education was responsible for establishing the principles of Adult Basic Education, and later for designing the programme. Both were subject to revision by internal and external validation. The outline curriculum for the first and second semesters of Adult Basic Education were first tried out in 20 Popular Culture Centres in the metropolitan area. Similarly, the fundamental elements of each of the areas in the first stage of the new study plan were approved by regional workshops attended by supervisors, directors and teachers in Adult Education, throughout the country; this allowed us to revise and adjust essential aspects of the plan.

The new curriculum links adult primary education (four courses) with the six semesters of the cycle of basic culture which were validated in the study plan published in Resolution No. 570 dated July 31, 1986.

3.2 Adult Basic Education

3.2.1 *Objectives and Curriculum*

Adult Basic Education (ABE) is the minimum level of compulsory education provided by the State to the adult population aged 15 years and over. Its objectives are to offer cultural and vocational education which may allow the participants to develop their knowledge, abilities and capacities for social activities and productive work, and allow them to continue studying. The courses are characterized by their flexibility, degree of participation, innovativeness, functionality and consistency, the purpose being to stimulate creative communication between the student and the teacher, and all other parties involved. In this sense, the curriculum constitutes a global strategy intended to produce changes in the elements of adult education. It is also based on the concept of continuing education for self-responsibility, self-achievement and democracy, which will lead students to be analytical, reflective and engaged in social and economic development.

This is of great importance to the participant, since it has been designed bearing in mind the participant's experiences. Furthermore, the planned activities must be related to the reality surrounding him. Even though the curricula have been designed by a group of specialized teachers, the work of the instructors in adult education centres has been considered.

3.2.2 *The Study Plan of Adult Basic Education*

Adult Basic Education is given in 12 semesters. The study plan contains two stages: the 1st to 6th semester, and the 7th to 12th. The first stage was initiated in October 1986, and the second a year later. A semester is a term in which a study programme is given, and it may last 18 weeks.

The study plan is an instrument which allows the teacher to meet the objectives of ABE, as well as to accommodate the profile of the participant. It is made up of sectors, areas and subjects.

The academic sector comprises knowledge in the humanities, science and arts, and is composed of learning areas, which are in turn made up of subjects. The vocational sector comprises the technical knowledge and skills necessary to perform a trade.

Language area.

The objectives are to contribute to the process of adult education by giving access to communication resources and national and world literature through the efficient use of the Spanish language and practical use of English. The two subjects are therefore Spanish, from the 1st to the 12th semester, and English, from the 7th to the 12th.

Mathematics area.

Mathematics is the only subject in this area. It is included in every semester, and in the first stage (1st to 6th semester) relates to daily activities. It provides the adult with the necessary basic elements to make abstractions, analyses and deductions, and to find feasible answers to individual needs and societal demands.

Natural Sciences area.

The objectives are to consolidate values, habits and intellectual abilities in the adult, based on an environmental approach which allows him to confront the problems of man and the community within the limits of a realistic situation. Teaching the adult to interpret phenomena, facts and situations, is a way of contributing to the formation of a scientific attitude and of achieving a better performance in the socio-cultural and productive fields of society.

The subjects in this area are studies of nature, health education, biology, chemistry and physics.

Social Studies area.

In this area the participant learns about the realities of the nation, Latin America and the world from a historical, economic, social and cultural point of view. This will allow him to interpret objectively the facts of the past and present, and to carry out efficient actions that will help him build the future.

The subjects in this area are Venezuelan history, world history, general Venezuelan geography, citizenship and family education.

3.2.3 *Class Hours and Frequency*

During the first stage (1st to 6th semester) the participant attends the adult education centre for ten hours a week, from 19.00 to 21.00 hours (two classes of 60 minutes each) on five evenings. In the second stage class hours at the centre depend on the emphasis laid on certain subjects, and their complexity. At this stage, classes last only 45 minutes.

While elementary school Basic Education takes nine years, ABE is accomplished in six.

3.2.4 *Methodology*

In the first stage of ABE, the teacher adopts an integrated approach, preferably using direct contact teaching and

trying to make the participant the centre of his own learning. That is, the teacher starts from the student's own experiences when organizing the different learning techniques. Debates, for example, stimulate participation and thought processes in the individual, and the correlation of the study programme contents with the problem being discussed.

In the second stage (7th to 12th) the instructor is a content specialist and may employ direct teaching techniques or distance teaching. The latter is being used in distance teaching centres.

3.2.5 *Learning Materials and Media*

In the first stage teachers use the various resources at their disposal (cassettes, texts, slides, etc.) to help them to reach their teaching objectives. During the first few semesters, and especially in Spanish language, the reading material is prepared by the teachers, before they include material from other sources.

In the second stage and for those participants registered in distance teaching centres, modules have been prepared for the different subjects taken. Cassettes are used for the English courses. This material is produced and distributed to the education centres by the Department of Adult Education.

However, it must be admitted that we often encounter a situation where material resources are scarce, which usually means that only chalk and blackboard are available. It is relevant to point out that the installations where adult education is given are usually the installations for regular basic education.

3.2.6 *Human Resources*

ABE functions with the support of teachers drawn from primary schools, of whom there are nationally over 6,000. These teachers are "borrowed", since their longer periods of work take place during the day. For example, a teacher who works 36 hours weekly in regular basic education may work a maximum of 12 hours weekly in an adult education centre. He is thus provided with a form of training through his daily work.

Obviously, this curriculum centred on the student requires a teacher capable of using diverse learning strategies; of planning new learning situations; of using available resources; of using, in a responsible way, the different forms of evaluation, etc. We must be aware of the existing limitations the teaching personnel must face in this modality. Among them we may mention that:

- During the day they must work with a different educational level;
- Work by night is a complementary activity;
- The teacher is repeating the same facts for years;
- He may be awaiting retirement and no longer interested in changes.

3.2.7 *Evaluation System*

Because of the flexibility of the curricular design the participant can choose the learning strategies by which he will be evaluated.

Evaluation in Adult Basic Education is applied according to the specifications made in the Organic Law of Education and its General Law and Regulations. Moreover, Resolutions 104 and 201 dated April, 1986, lay down comparability between evaluation in ABE and that of basic education and diversified and vocational secondary education. In this case, two evaluation strategies are indicated:

- Regular Attendance: the participants who choose this strategy will have obligatory class attendance and will submit themselves to the process of continuous evaluation, without final exams;
- Occasional Attendance: class attendance is not obligatory and the student will have only one evaluation at the end of the semester.

Various methods of implementation have been foreseen:

- Entry Level Tests: those with no proof of studies up to the 10th semester take tests during the first two weeks

of October related to relevant programme objectives. In the first stage of ABE, evaluation is by areas; from the 7th to the 10th by subject. The level at which the student will be placed depends on the grade obtained.

- Partial Credit Tests: these are obligatory for the participants registered under regular attendance. The results are cumulative and represent 70% of continuous evaluation.

- End of Semester Tests:

  . Regular tests: evaluations at the end of the semester are obligatory for all participants enrolled under regular attendance. The results represent 30% of continuous evaluation.

  . Special tests: these are obligatory for those enrolled under the occasional attendance system.

- Revision Tests: this is the type of evaluation which regards the sum total of programme objectives for each subject. Any student - in regular or occasional attendance - who has not completed courses or objectives at the end of the semester, has the right to the said evaluation.

There is, in deserving cases, also a system of 'extraordinary' evaluation, which can take one or more semesters or subjects into account, in accordance with the study plan. This is limited to students who have made excellent progress.

If a participant does not obtain the minimum passing grade at the end of the semester or by revision, he must:

- repeat the semester (for those in the 1st to 6th grades); or

- repeat the semester or all subjects not satisfactorily completed when in the 7th to 12th semester of diversified and vocational education.

It should be added that the requirements of the vocational education element of the basic education certificate are still under discussion.

3.3 The Open School System

This is another of the alternatives in learning and evaluation offered by the Organic Law of Education to those adults over 15 who wish to obtain their basic education certificate.

Through this alternative the participant may prepare himself and then take an examination agreed upon by the Ministry. The participant may teach himself with programmes from regular basic education. At the present time, the arrangements for the open school system are being discussed and they should be implemented during the second stage of basic education in the modality of adult education. The participants who choose this alternative will be evaluated according to the programmes of ABE.

4. STRATEGIES OF NONFORMAL EDUCATION

4.1 Overview of Agencies Engaged in Nonformal Education

In Venezuela, nonformal education has been developed through actions and strategies implemented by the Ministry of Education as well as other agencies, public and private, related to the educational process.

These strategies for nonformal or nonconventional education are addressed to areas and sectors of the population which have not been incorporated in the school system. The majority of these programmes are aimed at the population in general, and in some cases at specific groups of the population (housewives, young people, parents, peasants, etc.).

Many agencies belonging to the public and private sector have put into action nonformal strategies, in order to increase the cultural, nutritional, health and technical standards of the various groups located in different regions of the country: for instance, the Centro de Investigación

Aplicada a la Reforma Agraria (Research Centre for Agrarian Reform), which is dedicated to the training of peasants. Others, such as the Ministry of Youth, The Children's Foundation, FUNDACOMUN, and the Consejo Nacional de la Cultura (CONAC, National Cultural Council) promote the intellectual, moral, social and physical development of the individual.

We may also mention the Ministry of Education, which through its Department of Adult Education has developed non-formal education as part of a continuation system. Many methods and resources have been used to carry the various messages to unrestricted audiences: television, radio, theatre, puppet shows and written material.

Another initiative worth mentioning, organized by the Department of Adult Education as part of its formal programmes, is the training courses in spezialized centres. These are of both personal and social value to participants who may practise a trade once they have completed the course. However, they do not lead to a certificate valid from an academic point of view.

4.2 The National Institute for Educational Cooperation (INCE)

This is an autonomous institution, legally established in 1959 and working independently from the national treasury. Its main objectives are:

- to promote vocational training for workers, help train specialized personnel and carry out training programmes for unemployed young people;

- to cooperate in the struggle against illiteracy and to help improve primary education in general, in the country, in the area of vocational training;

- to prepare and produce the materials needed in the training programmes for workers;

- to help in training programmes for those who have completed a course in agriculture, so that a better use of the land and other natural resources may be obtained;

- to promote and support learning programmes among young workers. This objective can be achieved by creating special schools, and organizing learning methods in shops and factories with the help of propietors and according to legal regulations.

INCE covers its expenses with the help of:

- a contribution given by propietors equivalent to 2% of salaries, wages and payments of any kind which have been made to personnel working in commercial enterprises or industries not related to the State. Propietors are those persons, or legal entities employing five or more workers;

- one half per cent (0.5%) of all annual profits paid to workers and other employees. This amount is discounted from paycheques and deposited in favour of INCE;

- an equivalent 20% of the amounts in points 1 and 2, which is covered by the State;

- donations from individuals or legal entities.

INCE has used two methods in its efforts to contribute to the education of young Venezuelan adults:

- Direct Training Courses, i.e., vocational training given by INCE personnel using their own means, under the supervision and in accordance with the educational guidelines of the institution. INCE assigns a budget for this type of training from its general budget.

- Indirect Training Courses, i.e., training given by other institutions and by the industries themselves under INCE's supervision and financed by INCE, according to its policy of decentralization of activities.

4.3 Basic Education Programme of the National Institute for Educational Cooperation (INCE)

This is a complementary programme intended to provide workers with a basic education certificate so that they may obtain vocational training in enterprises.

4.3.1 *Objectives and Coverage*

The objectives of the programme are:

- to provide a general educational background in order to enable participants to obtain a basic education certificate;

- to make trades where basic education is a requisite accessible to workers;

- to shorten compulsory school years for the working population.

The programme is meant for workers aged 15 years and over who have finished reading and writing courses given by INCE, and those who have two or three years of schooling. It is a programme at the national level, in all developing regions. The various enterprises are in charge of the different courses. By 1984, according to a report from INCE, 743 courses had been completed in 105,117 hours, with 6,928 participants.

4.3.2 *Curriculum and Methodology*

The programmes are elaborated according to the requirements of the different areas in the study plan for Adult Basic Education. This means that we find subjects such as language, mathematics, natural sciences, social studies, civics, Venezuelan geography and history.

The course is divided into four levels. Each level is 150 hours long, two hours daily. These four levels correspond to the first stage (1st to 6th semester) of ABE. The worker registered for this course may finish it in approximately 16 months. Direct contact between the instructor and the participants gives the instructor the freedom to plan from day to day, in response to the participants' interest and motivation.

4.3.3 *Learning Materials*

The materials used are prepared by a specialized INCE

team and are similar to the material used to teach how to read and write. There is a variety of materials, and their content can be adaptable to the participant's knowledge level and his working environment.

4.3.4 *Human Resources*

The teachers in these courses are known as instructors. They are mainly primary school teachers or future teachers who have been trained by INCE in 75 hours, and given the complementary material. They are paid 25 bolivars per class hour by the Institute.

A second party in this process is the "Supervisor I", who is an INCE employee. He is in charge of promoting the courses in the enterprises and later, when the course is in process, it is his responsibility to make two to four supervising visits a month, in order to evaluate the performance of the instructors, and the achievement of the worker-participants. He thus establishes a link between INCE, the enterprise and the INCE instructor.

4.3.5 *Financial Resources*

INCE is responsible for paying the instructors and the supervisors their salaries. The courses are given within the enterprises' physical installations; in this way the full attendance of workers is guaranteed, since they do not have to move from their working areas.

4.3.6 *Evaluation*

Evaluation is made in accordance with Resolution No. 201 for Adult Basic Education. Attendance at courses is compulsory, so that a continuous evaluation system is required. Consequently, the participants will have:

- periodic examinations; a mid-programme examination, and a final one at the end of the course;

- regular examinations, which means that the instructor may set a test at any moment, in order to determine progress made.

The INCE supervisor evaluates the results, as well as the instructor's performance.

Having completed the four levels, the participant is granted a certificate which indicates that he has completed and passed the first stage (1st to 6th semester) of ABE. This enables the worker to continue school in any adult institution and thus obtain his basic education certificate.

4.3.7 *Programme Administration*

The programme functions in the central area and at state level. The first is serviced by the Literacy and Basic Education Unit, which is in charge of technical guidelines for the annual programme; it also provides the technical, administrative and personnel assistance required.

At state level, the Operational Production Units are in charge of the operational aspects in the area of administration and technical performance; that is, promotion, initiation, development, supervision and conduct of each of the programmes in each state in the country.

4.4 The Broadcasting Institue *Fé y Alegría*

The *Instituto Radiofónico Fé y Alegría* (IRFA) is part of the *Fé y Alegría* Movement for Global Popular Education, a Christian association founded in Venezuela in 1955. It is a non-profit making private institution, which combines various means to make distance adult education possible.

Primary education through radio broadcasting was systematically initiated in 1976 in two cities, Caracas and Maracaibo, for which elements from the Cultural Station Canaria were adopted. The idea was to broadcast school lessons, print accompanying guides and open counselling services for the participants.

The objective of IRFA is to build a better Venezuela by

- promoting a more just society;
- carrying out educational action for those most needing

it, starting off with methods that lead to participation in the decision-making process;

- reviving popular culture.

The Institute offers a range of programmes:

- reading and writing, and nonformal basic education;

- vocational training in sewing and housework, radio announcing, radio operating, radio production, accounting, electricity, etc. These courses are broadcast or taught live, and may last three to six months; in the semester September 1985 - Februar 1986 there were 750 participants in these courses, taught by 20 instructors in 20 different orientation centres;

- radio programmes, popular news agencies, audiovisual centres, parents' schools, etc., which are for an unrestricted public, popular and participatory, without overlooking the educational purpose. During the semester September 1985 - February 1986 the estimated audience for these programmes was 220,060.

4.5 The Basic Education Programme of *Fé y Alegría*

4.5.1 *Objectives and Coverage*

Although outside the school system, this programme awards a Basic Education Certificate as proof that the student has reached the minimum educational level prescribed by the State in the Law on Education of 1980. Its participants are persons aged 15 years and over who have not completed basic education or who have just finished one of IRFA's reading and writing courses. Most of them are housewives, domestic servants, etc.

It is a national level programme. Centres have been opened in Caracas, Maracaibo, Campo Mata (Anzoategui State) and Tovar (Merida State). By January 1986, IRFA was serving, at basic education level, 7,135 participants across the country in 186 educational centres with 577 instructors.

4.5.2 *Curriculum and Methodology*

Through this system, basic education is completed in ten semesters, grouped in cycles. The first cycle is made up of four semesters which constitute a first stage. Each one of these four semesters lasts 20 weeks. The second and third cycle are made up of the 5th to 10th semesters, which are 18 weeks long. Both cycles have radio broadcasts and orientation sessions.

The methodology used by IRFA is distance teaching, which integrates all resources in the global pursuit of an objective. Three elements are used: orientation sessions, radio broadcasts, and printed materials.

Orientation.

This can be a contact teaching session between the participant and the instructor in an orientation centre, but it is more likely to be a study group in which participatory debate between the orientator/instructor and the community is stressed. Orientation sessions are held on Saturdays and Sundays, and may last two to three hours. They introduce the topics under discussion, and are complemented by radio broadcasts. Early units concentrate on the participant's own community, and national questions are added later on.

Radio Broadcasts.

IRFA employs a multidisciplinary team, which is responsible for producing the texts of the radio programmes. These are closely related to one another and to the orientation sessions. Each week a number of objectives is assigned; activities and evaluation are correlated in order to avoid repetition.

In the broadcasts a dynamic and entertaining style is assured through the use of such techniques as conversation, interviews, music and dramatizations.

Broadcasts are made on a daily basis starting at 17.00 or 17.30, and are repeated at 22.00 for those who may have missed the earlier time. The broadcasts may last up to 30 minutes each. IRFA has four radio stations available, two of which belong to the Archbishoprics of the relevant States.

It is a great advantage using radio stations which present entertainment programmes for the remainder of the day.

Printed Materials.

Printed material typically contains the following elements:

- a page content or an image that supports and complements the radio programmes
- a drill page to work on while listening to the broadcast
- a drill book
- complementary reading

In this way, even though the participant may not listen to the broadcast or attend the orientation centre, he may still follow the exercises in the printed material. This material is entitled *AVANCEMOS* and is distributed to the participants during weekly sessions at the orientation centres.

4.5.3 *Human Resources*

Senior staff and specialized planning personnel are located at the head office in Caracas. At the operational level the orientators/instructors are mainly:

- university students with a Christian education;
- teachers and members of religious orders who work in schools related to *Fé y Alegría*.

Each centre has a coordinating unit which supervises and links the instructors with the Institute. For students who function as instructors, IRFA has prepared training workshops with the following content:

- basic instruction on the orientation centres;
- basic instruction on adult education;
- instruction on social and Christian action;

- publicity for the orientation centres;

- links between the centre and the cultural environment.

Students have been accepted because of the lack of trained teachers, particularly in the Caracas area; they are willing to serve without a salary in the *barrios* where most of the centres are situated.

4.5.4 *Financial Resources*

The institution is partly subsidized by the Ministry of Education and partly by the National Institute of Educational Cooperation (INCE), but it is also helped by public and private enterprises. It counts on contributions from participants - a small registration fee of 10 to 25 bolívars - depending on the semester, and also on the sale of printed material.

Every year a campaign is run under the title *Your Grain of Sand*, in order to solicit contributions from groups and individuals.

4.5.5 *Evaluation*

A continuous evaluation of the participants is made through supervision of their drill sheets and their performance in the orientation sessions. A final examination administered by the centre is taken at the end of every semester in the first cycle, while for the second and third cycle partial credit and final examinations are prepared by the Institute.

The programme is evaluated by the instructors, head office staff and centre coordinators.

5. REVIEW OF PROVISION

5.1 The Present Situation

The analysis made of the different educational alternatives for persons between the ages of 13 to 18 who have not completed their basic education indicates that the growing number of students at various educational levels is due, on the one hand, to population growth, and on the other to the policies of a massive and democratic learning programme initiated in the sixties. Yet expansion of the system is not enough to meet the needs of the total school population. This growth has led to a quality problem since it has produced graduates incapable of satisfying present-day demands.

The Venezuelan government has made great efforts in designing an innovative curriculum for basic education, breaking away from the formal régime which characterized our educational system. We have made significant achievements in implementing the first two basic education stages, specifically in the areas of teacher training, methodology and establishing a link between the community and the school. Promotion through the use of mass media has contributed greatly, since many important aspects and changes introduced in the educational system have been widely discussed and exposed.

A second innovative aspect is the link between learning and socially useful work. The idea is to upgrade manual activities and to introduce participants to trades which may allow them to establish contact with the market, if they decide to abandon school. There are, however, many obstacles: popular undervaluing of manual work, lack of good teachers, high costs of industrial workshops in terms of money and teaching time, and non-existence of a market for young workers aged 15 and over. Hence the efforts of the Ministry of Education to relate work to education are followed with great interest.

Today's concept of basic education demands a teacher ready to play the role of orientator, planner, investigator, supervisor, promoter, etc. The step of demanding a complete university education for all teachers was an important one as it helped to eliminate the academic and social distinctions

between primary and secondary school teachers, but the question remains whether teachers are capable of changing from the traditional repetitive style to become active and creative. Evaluation also demands more time now from the teacher, as he must work on percentages, global results and record keeping.

The existing nonformal education programme does not always grant a certificate equivalent to the one obtained through formal education, but it contributes to cultural and social development in the population, and to improving their health and participation. In many cases it is aimed at specific population groups (peasants, housewives or youngsters). Many of these strategies are implemented within a certain period of time (one or two years) and involve a large number of persons; in many cases, the actual effects remain unknown.

Nonformal strategies are used by both the public and private sectors. The Department of Adult Education offers the population aged 15 years and over the possibility of learning and trade, so that it is necessary to keep the local needs of participants under review. As to the programmes in Adult Basic Education, it is too early to determine the quality and the results.

The basic education provided by INCE is only equivalent to the first stage. This implies the need for close cooperation between INCE and the Department, so that workers can advance to take their basic education certificate.

We also know that in the Centres for Popular Culture, only the first stage has been completed (6 semesters). How to relate these to centres where the second stage has been completed is an issue still being discussed.

The work carried out by INCE through the National Learning Programme and the Occupational Qualifying Programme is worth mentioning. Thousands of young people have completed training courses with INCE. Furthermore, these studies prove that private enterprises believe in INCE's graduates as reliable workers.

We must also give credit to the nonformal educational activities carried out by *Fé y Alegría* (IRFA) and by the Service Centre for Popular Action (CESAP). These have contributed to the education of popular groups, through direct

contact or through their radio programmes.

The financial situation is still a difficult one. An illustrative example is the fact that, although the need for basic education has increased, as well as the number of students registered at this level, 40% of the education budget is allocated to high level studies. Adult education is allocated only 0.28% to 0.30%. This causes constraints, especially in basic education.

5.2 Future Prospects

To improve the quality and range of education, the Ministry of Education plans progressively to implement the third stage of basic education, and to introduce educational reforms at the level of the diversified and vocational secondary school. The idea is to achieve coherence and harmony between the two levels.

Basic education through the modality of adult education will be extended nationally, and open school alternatives will be implemented for those aged 16 and over. The number of adults registered for the semester of basic education, and for diversified and vocational secondary education, will increase, as is apparent from the drop-out, repetition and retention rates.

Training courses will be modified to cope with increasing national demands.

Training mechanisms will be created in adult education, through the Regional Network of Personnel Training and Specific Assistance and the Literacy and Adult Education Programmes, all within the framework of the Latin America and Caribbean Principal Education Project (REDALF).

INCE fosters and designs courses meeting changing social needs. It also covers training programmes for new trade instructors. And together with the Ministry of Education, it plans to provide workers who have completed their secondary education with the credits necessary to continue higher level studies.

NOTE

1. Ministry of Education. *Organic Law of Education.* National Press. 1980. pp 11-12.

CHAPTER 6

EXAMPLES OF SPECIAL PROJECTS FOR OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN

Summary by A. Manindra Kanaweera
of Reports by

Myriam Zuñiga Escobar
University of El Valle
Cali, Colombia

Mohammad Romli Suparman
Ministry of Education
Jakarta, Indonesia

Gloria T. Lasam
Department of Education, Culture and Sports
Region 01
La Union, The Philippines

1. COLOMBIA: WORKING CHILDREN AND URBAN MIGRATION

1.1 Popular Education

Alternative approaches to education in Colombia strongly reflect the principles and structures on which the Latin American system of popular education is based. These proceed from the assertion that traditional approaches are characterized by the application of powerful central control by the dominant culture over the curriculum, the methodology, evaluation, and the patterns of school organization and school-community relations. It is held that this transmits the dominant culture and thereby contributes to the process of sorting the population into a social hierarchy. In contrast, alternative approaches are those which attempt to undermine the power base of those in control who are promoting the dominant culture. The following have been stated as some of the characteristics of alternative approaches:

- the main 'actors' of the educational process select and organize the curriculum;
- the pedagogical process is designed to suit the interests, pacing and timing of the learners;
- the process and criteria of evaluation are determined by the learners, teachers and parents;
- the pattern of organization of the learning centre and its social relationships are established by the learners, teachers and supervisors; and
- the community participates in the entire instructional process as well as in the social organization of the learning centre, which also becomes a social and cultural centre of the community.

These factors ensure that the local community assumes power and control over the educational process.

The concept of popular education is thus an attempt to restructure education using alternative approaches. Its aim is to promote the organization of the popular sectors of society in order to enable them to design and manage their own educational process geared to the development process. Such an educational programme should

- recognize the culture and non-conventional knowledge of the popular sectors;
- be relevant to the needs of the learners;
- be designed, implemented and evaluated in collaboration with the 'actors' (i.e., learners, instructors, parents); and
- encourage collective control, development of personal autonomy, self-esteem and cultural identity among the popular sectors of society.

Alternative approaches based on the above propositions have grown out of the efforts of non-profit foundations whose aims are to create a new social order. Two such experiences are described below:

1.2 An Experience with Working Children

This project was carried out by the Colombian Research Centre in Popular Education (CINEP), a non-profit foundation financed by the Jesuits in Candelaria in the Caribbean region of Colombia. The children in this area come from poor families of farm workers and have to work to supplement the family income. Hence they are unable to attend formal schools on a regular basis. The project was set up with two purposes in mind: firstly to provide basic education to the working children and secondly, to develop a pedagogical model which would lead to consciousness-raising among the learners and their community.

The main features of this experience were:

- Flexible schedules: children could come to school after work or during their free time to study independently or in small groups.

- Instructional cards: cards containing contents of interest to the learners and the community were designed by the teachers based on themes selected by the learners and parents. These cards helped to organize individual or group work.

- The new role of the teacher: the teacher built up a friendly relationship with the learners and functioned as a researcher of problems of learners and the community, planner of instructional activities and a coordinator of the learning process. The pedagogical relationship was thus more flexible and the children's knowledge was recognized and incorporated in the educational process.

- Members of the community were themselves regarded as educational agents taking part in learning experiences in the social context of the school.

- The local culture was taken as the main reference for the selection of curriculum content, the design of instructional activities, and for the evaluation of learner achievement.

- The social organization of the school was set up through a process of agreement among students, teachers and parents; e.g., a group of students were commissioned for organizing the school work for each week; instructional materials were made by parents, teachers and students organized in groups; older students helped the younger ones with their assignments.

1.3 The Filodehambre Project

The Christian Clarethian Community in Bogotá developed a project in Neiva, where a new neighbourhood had been set up illegally by peasants who migrated to the city. The construction of classrooms and furniture was carried out by the community, including the learners and their parents. This pro-

vided an opportunity for community cooperation in the organization of welfare activities. Participatory action research was carried out by teachers, parents and children to get to know the community, identify its needs and select relevant curriculum content. The learning/teaching process has been based on the cooperative work of the children, who are free to select their assignments and carry out projects under the guidance of the teacher.

Based on the agreement between learners and teachers about the content and learning strategies, "collective textbooks" are written by them, working in small groups. Learners are evaluated through various activities by both their teachers and classmates. Self-evaluation is also practised.

2. INDONESIA: OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN IN RURAL AREAS

2.1 The Pamong Primary School System

The Pamong primary education programme in Indonesia is an example of a non-conventional approach which attempts to link formal and nonformal education to tackle the problem of drop-outs and unenrolled children. The Pamong system, which has been running experimentally since 1974, aims at providing opportunities to children who for various reasons are unable to attend the regular formal schools.

The learners of the Pamong system are children of primary school age who are not attending the formal primary school in their village. The school serves as the centre for administration and professional support, while satellite learning posts are established using local community resources. Hence the project is both school-centred and community-based.

The local department of education is responsible for the administration and supervision of the project. Two teachers from the formal school, one for grades 1 and 2 and the other for grades 3 to 6, are assigned to the project to be responsible for the instructional aspects, and one more teacher is given the responsibility for administrative work. Skilled personnel in the community are used to assist in the basic

skills training. The learning-teaching process therefore utilizes all available local resources, both formal and nonformal, including formal school teachers, parents and skilled persons in the community.

The main delivery system is self-instruction using modules based on the existing curriculum.

The process of introducing the system to a village involves the active participation of the local community at all stages. The deprived children (the clientele) are identified with the help of community leaders. One or two schools are selected as centres for managing the project and learning posts are set up as satellites of these schools. The learning posts are selected to suit the convenience of the learners and may be community buildings, village offices or even ordinary houses.

The advantages of this system are:

- the learning time is flexible to accord with the time and opportunities the learners have;

- a learner is free to stop his studies at any time and is free to come back any time he wishes without being considered a drop-out; and

- simple, inexpensive self-instructional modules or booklets and self-learning kits which are 'programmed' are used, enabling learners to proceed at their own pace. (This has the additional advantage of enabling learners who are forced to leave the system to re-enter it and study at their own speed).

2.2 The Kejar Strategy

An innovative strategy adopted by Indonesia to eradicate illiteracy among all age groups is known as the *Kejar* ("catch-up") strategy and is described as a strategy "to devise a programme which aims at catching up with what is lagging behind, whose nature is 'learning by doing' or 'learners utilizing their leisure to learn', and the activities are implemented through learning groups".[1] While the Kejar

strategy is a general one adopted to eradicate mass illiteracy, the Indonesian *Kejar Package A* includes among its clientele out-of-school children of the 7-14 age group in need of primary level education.

The learning process is organized in such a way as not to disturb the activity of a learner who has to earn a living. The learners themselves decide as a group on a convenient time, place and frequency of meeting for study. Materials and equipment such as blackboards, chalk and furniture are supplied by the community, and the government supplies the books in the Learning Package.

Each learning group, comprising 5-10 members, uses the books (Package A-1 to A-100) and is assisted by a tutor recruited from the community. Additional resource persons are also recruited for special purposes, e.g., to teach vocational skills, health, etc. They may be carpenters, farmers, health workers, family welfare workers, etc., who have the ability to communicate and transfer their knowledge and skills.

2.2.1 *The Kejar Learning Materials, their Contents, Design and Methods* [2]

Learning materials for illiterates and primary school drop-outs consist of one hundred booklets called Package A-1 up to A-100, the contents of which have been drawn from the experiences of volunteers (since 1969), of university students (since 1972), and of almost all extension workers (of the Ministry of Agriculture, of the National Population and Family Planning Body, of the Ministry of Health, of the Ministry of Social Affairs, etc.) who have lived and worked with the people in the villages, covering all spheres of life, but biased toward rural development: ideology, politics, economics, socio-cultural activities, defence and security. The contents are directed toward rural life because more than 80% of the 150 million Indonesians are not urbanized. Each booklet in Package A has been through several revisions. Drafts have been written in workshops and writing contests, or as commissions, and these have been subject to evaluation and selection, pre-testing, amendment and final editing before production and distribution.

The contents of the Learning Package A booklets may be categorized as follows: first, religious and spiritual

teachings based on the belief in God Almighty; second, family and community life; third, rights and obligations of a citizen; fourth, environmental awareness; fifth, family welfare education; sixth, career orientation; seventh, literacy, reading, writing, arithmetic, Bahasa Indonesia (the Indonesian national language); and eighth, community health. Package A is a collection of minimum learning materials covering all areas of life, which should be mastered by all illiterates and primary school drop-outs in order that they become responsible, well-informed, and productive citizens.

The Learning Package A booklets were designed so that an illiterate or a primary school drop-out is motivated to learn. The motivating factors are:

- The learning of language and arithmetic are integrated, not separated, the reason for this being that in real life situations the two are intermingled: nobody separates calculation from verbal explanation, but mixes them in conversation.

- The content is staggered in 22 levels of difficulty, moving step by step from easy to more difficult stages.

- National songs that motivate people to become active and productive citizens were written as part of the learning package A booklets.

Beside the booklets, we also provide leaflets, posters, slides, cassette recordings, films, etc., to support the learning process. Because the booklets are biased towards rural development, and also because they are prepared nationally (although based on grass-roots experiences), we encourage the writing of supplementary learning materials in order to satisfy the learners' needs and interests. This writing is done not only in the centre, province, district, municipality or sub-district, but especially in the villages and in the learning groups in order that what is being studied is relevant to the daily situation of the people.

The contents of Package A may be said to be equal or to approximate to the primary school curriculum. They have the advantage that they are designed to be more relevant to daily life, and the disadvantage that the content of the primary school curriculum which relies more on memorization

has been deleted. The contents follow a principle of concentric rings of knowledge: from the centre, the learner moves slowly into a wider environment, and hence from the concrete to the more abstract. The package starts with the person, and then progresses to the interior of the house (kitchen, bathroom, latrine, etc.), the immediate surroundings of the house, the sub-village, the village, the village environs, the sub-district, and so on.

Since Kejar Package A aims to eradicate the three "Blindnesses", to Latin characters and Arabic numberals, to basic education and to the national language, the booklets are written in Bahasa Indonesia, but the medium of instruction used by the tutors is the mother tongue (or dialect) of each region. Package A-1 to A-3 introduce the Latin characters and the Arabic numberals (integrated), at the same time teaching Bahasa Indonesia, so that it may take three to six months just to finish the three booklets. The guidance given to the tutors is that they have to proceed very slowly with A-1 to A-3, especially when dealing with those learners who have never been to school. A-4 to A-20 must also be studied unhurriedly, by making sure that a booklet has been fully mastered and understood before moving to the next number. The tutor has also to encourage learners to practise what they have learned in their real life situation, by planting vegetables around the house, etc. A-21 to A-60, and A-61 to A-100 are written for "self-instructional" purposes, so that the learners may be in need of a tutor only once or twice a week just to check whether they have mastered a certain booklet, or not. When a learner really masters A-1 to A-20, he or she has acquired more than 1,500 basic Indonesian words commonly used in daily activities. With these 1,500 words, a learner is able to communicate in Bahasa Indonesia, and to study A-21 through A-100 himself or herself.

3. THE PHILIPPINES: THE MOBILE TENT SCHOOL

3.1 Background Information

The Mobile Tent School project implemented the findings of a survey on ethnic communities in the Cagayan Valley Region. Principally this survey explored an alternative system of schooling indigenous to the culture and lifestyle of the

ethnic tribes. It was focused on how to bring education to the deprived, disadvantaged and neglected areas.

The study tried out strategies that are both economical and effective in reaching children of school age who are beyond the range of the formal system. In order to develop a curriculum for them, an ethnographic profile had to be drawn for each of the seven tribes. The study indicated the seasonal tendency of families to transfer to temporary dwellings in remote *kaingin* sites, where the children are needed to work on the farm, thereby lessening their interest in schooling. The ethnic groups selected for this study, and all other tribes for that matter, show a pattern of mobility, always looking for food. Since they make *kaingin* on different sites every year, they tend to move in whole villages of families from settlement to settlement deep in the jungles.

In recent years, they have become victims of torture in the law and order operations between the military and the subversives. These factors have reinforced their errant and highly transitory mode of settlement, and are a hindrance to their gaining access to educational facilities and institutions. There is a felt need for a kind of alternative schooling that would provide opportunities for them to develop their potentialities and enable them to live a humane existence within the context of their peculiar ecology and sociological backgrounds.

The goals of this project were defined as follows:

- to provide increasing opportunities for the ethnic groups to live a higher quality of life through a system of schooling that will raise their knowledge, skills, and consciousness to a level on which they can build a better life, even if they do not receive further formal instruction;

- to map the manifestations of poverty, such as disease caused by malnutrition, illiteracy and squalor that afflict the marginal group; and

- to increase understanding and appreciation of their culture through their folklore, songs and dances, customs and traditions, etc.

3.2 Objectives of the Mobile Tent School

The Mobile Tent School Project examined the educational needs of selected ethnic groups in Region 02 and drew out implications for setting up a Non-Graded Mobile Tent School. It did not attempt to prescribe any curriculum, but explored an alternative system of schooling which would attract and hold members of these groups, consider their lifestyle and culture, and would enable them to learn practical lessons applicable to daily life.

To afford opportunities and access to live a better quality of life, the Mobile Tent School adopted the functional view that equated basic education (the learning needs of any particular group) with the following six categories of learning:

- constructive attitudes, character traits and values conducive to effective personal development and to community and national development;
- functional literacy and numeracy;
- a scientific outlook and a rudimentary understanding of one's natural and social environment;
- basic knowledge and skills in rearing a family and managing a household;
- functional skills and knowledge for earning a living; and
- knowledge and skills requisite to effective civic participation.

3.3 Framework of the Mobile Tent School

A simple analytical and innovative framework was adopted for the pilot Mobile Tent School. It conceived of a system of education that embraces most learning activities in formal and nonformal education.

Formal education in structured and chronologically graded levels stretches from Grade I to Grade VI and through

to the university. It benefits only 1% of the ethnic population, while nonformal education caters to the many who have been bypassed by the formal schools, those who have dropped out and those who have never enrolled. The nonformal education programme covered by the Mobile Tent School is directed at serving the learning needs of the children of school age, 6 to 12, of any particular group who are in want of the four categories of minimum essential learning needs, namely: (1) family and community life, (2) literacy and numeracy, (3) health and nutrition, and (4) livelihood.

The Mobile Tent School exemplified an integrated programme of rural development, in which various agencies and ministries of government collaborate and integrate their development efforts. In fact, directors and staff of the ministries of Health, National Manpower and Agriculture, and the National Economic Council planned together and implemented the project. They became regular and active participants in the planning of activities and of the content of the course outline.

The pilot Mobile Tent School had significant cost-saving features since it consisted of a single teacher, with no need of infrastructure such as classrooms and offices. It was set up in tents along an irrigation canal. The Mobile Tent concept is an answer to the mobile nature of the ethnic tribes who are perennially in search of food. The teacher moves from one settlement to another, holding classes in tents or "kiosks". The teacher is a government agent who not only looks into the educational needs of the learners but assists in food production, health, civics and other concerns.

3.4 Features of Mobile Tent Schools

3.4.1 *Teacher Selection*

Mobile Tent School teachers for ethnic groups can come from varied career backgrounds. They work under difficult and hazardous conditions, often in isolated communities, and accept the multiple roles of community worker, spiritual leader, health officer, etc. The teachers understand and respect the culture of the people, speak their language, Ilocano or Tagalog, and immerse themselves in the community. Extension workers from other ministries are encouraged to join the project.

3.4.2 *Ethnic Lay Teachers*

As an example, two Agta laymen who received a Literacy Certificate from the Summer Institute of Linguistics were assigned to help the Mobile Tent teacher. They were paid a monthly salary of 600.00 Philippine pesos each, the purpose of their employment being to give them the incentive to acquire education. Further, since their culture requires a headman, these two lay teachers were able to enhance pupil attendance and to follow up class activities. They attended classes and helped the children to learn their lessons. Both lay teachers attended all workshops held for the project, serving as informants to the participants.

3.4.3 *Course Content*

Limited to the basic essentials of living, the course content includes:

- family and community life;
- functional literacy and numeracy;
- civics and culture;
- health, nutrition and science; and
- means of livelihood.

Since food is the primary preoccupation of learners, all activities are directed to helping them to learn to live. The curriculum is designed to this end by the participants in a workshop. As soon as the children are ready for formal education, they can go to the nearby schools. (This is the plan in the Philippine project.)

3.4.4 *Instructional Facilities and Materials*

The collapsible tent, collapsible chairs and tables, and the blackboard are temporary facilities which are locally produced, and they are easy to store during typhoons and bad weather. A Mobile Library, together with multi-media instructional materials, provided support to the Mobile Tent teacher. Representatives from various ministries participated

in workshops which produced materials and prepared modules relevant to the background, experience, growth and development of the ethnic groups. Each course is viewed as a self-contained unit, with each of the courses designed to last for less than a month.

3.4.5 *School Calendar*

The scheduled times of classes are decided in agreement with the tribe, but as the teacher lives as part of the group, the necessary flexibility is built in. In the case of the Philippine project, at one time when the children left the Mobile Tent School for their *kaingins*, the teacher followed them, and the Agta lay teachers were of great assistance in bringing back the children to the Tent. There were no drop-outs for they were allowed to join their parents as necessary in planting and harvesting.

3.4.6 *Feeding Programme and Occupational Activities*

The clientele are perennially beset by lack of food. The Mobile Tent School gives priority to assisting them to learn to live and at the same time attends to their immediate need for food. A feeding programme was an integrated part of the Philippine Mobile Tent School to curb the high incidence of malnutrition among the children. Seeds and animals were given to the children to assist and encourage them in their agricultural and animal husbandry pursuits.

3.4.7 *Evaluation*

To evaluate the performance of the Mobile Tent School as an alternative delivery system of schooling for ethnic communities, a team of evaluators from different sectors provided feedback that was recorded. Some of their documented impressions are:

- The Mobile Tent School is cost-saving as it requires "tents" or "kiosks" only, which are available even in remote areas.

- Like the "foot doctor", the Mobile Tent Teacher goes to where the children are, to those who cannot afford to

go to school, are at too great a distance from the school, or are unable to integrate themselves with the "lowlanders" or "Christians". Children are saved from climbing the steep slopes of mountains and from crossing swollen rivers.

- The Mobile Tent teacher can cover as many settlements as she can reach, thereby increasing the participation rate of ethnic children.

- The Mobile Tent School, according to the headman of the tribe assisted by the pilot school, is a demonstration of the concern of the lowlanders for them. They claim this is the first time a school has been specially made for them.

- In terms of learning outcomes, the children manifest changed habits and attitudes, and acquisition of the basic skills in reading, writing and arithmetic. The Mobile Tent teacher has itemized such changes, especially in health, hygiene, sanitation and work habits. They now use toilets, trim their finger nails, have improved their physical features and chew less buyo.

- They are now seen mingling overtly with their neighbours without being too conscious of their tribe. Children no longer hide their faces when talked to. Some of the families are now seen in the market selling rattan and fuel without having to go to a middleman.

- The two Agta lay teachers go to the Land Bank and cash their cheques without any help. The Bank employees are pleased to see them.

- During Christmas of 1985, the parents and children with their teacher sang carols and songs at government offices for the first time. They earned 800.00 pesos to buy sweaters for their children. They have also learned to seek the help, when necessary, of clinics, the Bureau of Forestry, and the teachers.

- The class schedule and school calendar are very flexible, and allow children to help on the farm.

- Parents feel a sense of pride at seeing their children in school with a teacher.

NOTES

1. Napitapulu, W.P. *Decentralization of the Resource Structure - its Linkage with Learners' Needs and Interests.* Jakarta: Departemen Pendidikan Dan Kebudayaan, 1983, p. 1.

2. Idem, pp. 10-15.

CHAPTER 7

A SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

by

A. Mahinda Ranaweera

The following are some of the main findings that have emerged from the experiences of the countries which participated in the study and from the discussions which took place during the planning and review meetings held under this project:

- The out-of-school population is not homogeneous in character. It consists of a large number of special categories, each having its distinctive problems. Hence there cannot be a common solution and a single approach which are universally valid. A variety of approaches specially designed to suit the problems of different categories have to be found.

- While some countries (e.g., India) have developed the nonformal system as an alternative parallel to the formal system, others (e.g., Venezuela) have developed nonformal approaches mainly for young adults to impart vocational training along with nonformal basic education.

- The age group of learners for whom the nonformal approaches are designed varies but, in general, they cater to the 9-15 age group. Some countries have programmes for children below 9 years of age, and the programmes for those over 15 years are generally classified as adult education programmes.

- In most countries covered by the study, the nonformal programme has not remained merely a government programme. A number of institutions have emerged to supplement government efforts to expand and strengthen nonformal education (e.g., INCE in Venezuela and EDUCAR in Brazil). A variety of institutional arrangements ranging from governmental and non-governmental organizations to local community initiatives have assumed responsibility for nonformal programmes.

- Many countries make use of the physical and human resources of the formal system to implement nonformal

programmes. For example, school buildings and formal school teachers are utilized after normal school time to run nonformal classes. When such facilities are not available or suitable, the learners and instructors jointly locate appropriate or private buildings to suit the convenience of both parties.

- The learning arrangements are made flexible in order to meet the needs of the learners. Face-to-face instruction is generally for two to three hours a day. There may be special types of classes to meet particular needs through a flexible time of attendance (e.g., as in the morning study classes, mid-day classes, night classes, every-other-day classes, breaktime classes, mobile classes, etc. in China).

- The nonformal classes do not follow the rigid grade structure of the formal system with fixed entry and exit points. There are multi-grade classes and flexible entry and exit points. Also, the learner is allowed to progress at his own pace.

- The nonformal education programme is compressed so that it can be completed in a shorter period of time than the formal primary education programme. In India, for example, five years of formal education are reduced to two years of nonformal, and in Venezuela, nine years of formal to six years of nonformal).

- With regard to the curriculum, the aim in most countries is to have a nonformal primary education which is comparable in quality and level of attainment to the formal system. In addition, some countries have a vocational education component added to meet the needs of the particular age group and category of learners.

- The need to involve the learners and the local community, besides the teachers and supervisors, in the curriculum development process so that the content is relevant to the culture and needs of the learners has been recognized, and several countries have taken appropriate steps to put this idea into practice.

- In most countries, face-to-face instruction is the most important modality used. Some countries use distance

education techniques in addition. Self-learning modules are used, for example, in Indonesia. Radio and TV are being increasingly used where such facilities are available, e.g., radio and TV in India, TV in Brazil, radio in Zambia, and radio with accompanying printed materials in Venezuela.

- The nonformal programme in most countries still draws heavily on the resources of the formal system, particularly the personnel. A well-trained cadre of nonformal education personnel has not yet developed in most countries. In addition to the formal school teachers, the services of local resource persons such as educated members of the local community, extension workers, retired professionals, etc. are also utilized.

- A systematic programme of training for personnel has not yet been developed in most countries. Ad hoc, short term in-service training programmes are arranged when they are considered necessary.

- Most countries seem to depend on the conventional evaluation methods of the formal system to evaluate the learners even in the nonformal sector. However, a few examples of less rigid nonformal approaches to evaluation have been reported, (e.g., India and Colombia). Certificates are issued to learners who successfully complete the courses and pass the examinations. It is understood that such examinations are needed for purposes of accreditation and acceptance of the nonformal learning programmes for employment and entry into the formal system for further education.

- The financial support for the programmes comes mainly from national government sources. Non-governmental support, for example from community resources and individuals, is also available in some cases (e.g., China). In Venezuela INCE receives funds from the commercial sector in accordance with national law.

- While the nonformal programme in each country is aimed at and designed for a nationally identifiable learner group, the special characteristics and needs of smaller groups belonging to special categories such as nomadic

tribes, migrant workers and women have been recognized in some countries, and special programmes have been developed for such groups.

APPENDIX

PARTICIPANTS IN THE INTERNATIONAL MEETINGS HELD AT THE UNESCO INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATION, HAMBURG, FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY, TO STUDY CURRICULA AND INSTRUCTIONAL METHODS FOR NONFORMAL AND ALTERNATIVE APPROACHES FOR EDUCATION AT THE PRIMARY LEVEL IN THE FRAMEWORK OF LIFELONG EDUCATION

Planning Meeting, 23 - 27 June, 1986

Brazil

Ms Ana Maria Coutinho
Deputy Technical Director
EDUCAR Foundation
Rua da Alfândega, 214 - 5° Andar
20.070 Rio de Janeiro

China, People's Republic of

Mrs Shao-min Chen
Teaching Researcher
Shanghai Bureau of Education
500 Shanxi Road (N)
Shanghai 200041

Mr Chang-xing Zhao
Programme Execution Official
National Commission of the People's
Republic of China for Unesco
35 Damucanghutong
Xidan
Beijing

India

Mr Yogendra Nath Chaturvedi
Joint Secretary
Department of Education
Ministry of Human Resources Development
107-C Wing
Shastri Bhawan
New Delhi 110001

Venezuela

Mrs Ilce Manrique
Supervisor IV
Dirección de Educación de Adultos
Edificio Sede Ministerio de Educación
Piso 11 - Esq. Salas
Caracas

Zambia

Mr Katongo Albanus Chali
Acting Director
Directorate of Manpower, Development
and Training
Cabinet Office
P O Box 50340
Lusaka

Review Meeting, 18 - 22 May, 1987

Brazil

Ms Ana Maria Coutinho
Deputy Technical Director
EDUCAR Foundation
Rua da Alfândega, 214 - 5^{o} Andar
20.070 Rio de Janeiro

China, People's Republic of

Mrs Shao-min Chen
Teaching Researcher
Shanghai Bureau of Education
500 Shanxi Road (N)
Shanghai 200041

Mrs Guo Feng
Programme Officer
National Commission of the People's
Republic of China for Unesco
35 Damucanghutong
Xidan
Beijing

India

Mr Yogendra Nath Chaturvedi
Joint Secretary
Department of Education
Ministry of Human Resources Development
107-C Wing
Shastri Bhawan
New Delhi 110001

Venezuela

Mrs Ilce Manrique
Supervisor IV
Dirección de Educación de Adultos
Edificio Sede Ministerio de Educación
Piso 11 - Esq. Salas
Caracas

Zambia

Mr Katongo Albanus Chali
Director
Directorate of Manpower, Development
and Training
Cabinet Office
P O Box 50340
Lusaka

Review and Orientation Meeting, 26 - 30 September, 1988

Bangladesh

Mr Abu Alam Md. Shahid Khan
Assistant Secretary
Ministry of Education
Bangladesh Secretariat
Dhaka 1000

Colombia

Professor Myriam Zúniga-Escobar
Director of Popular Educators
Programme
Universidad del Valle
Facultad de Educación
A.A. 25360
Cali

Egypt

Dr Abdel Fattah Galal
Dean
Institute of Educational Studies
and Research
Cairo University
33 Almisaha Street
Dokki Giza
Cairo

Ethiopia

Mr Iyasu Demoz
Vice-Minister of Education
Ministry of Education
P O Box 1367
Addis Ababa

India

Professor Savitri J Shahani
Director of the Centre for
Educational Studies
Indian Institute of Education
128/2, J.P. Naik Path, Kothrud
Pune - 411029

Indonesia

Mr Mohammad Romli Suparman
Research Center
Office of Educational &
Cultural Research & Development
Ministry of Education
Jl. Jendral Sudirman
P O Box 297 KBY
Jakarta

Kenya

Mrs Elizabeth S Masiga
Assistant Chief Inspector
of Schools
Ministry of Education
P O Box 30426
Nairobi

Liberia

Mr Wilmot K Freeman
Deputy Minister for Planning/
Research & Development
Ministry of Education
Monrovia

Mexico

Dr Juan Francisco Miilán
Director of Literacy Programme
in Mexico
Nicolás San Juan No 1319-Bis
2 Piso
Colonia del Valle
Mexico D.F.

Nepal

Mr Kameshwar Shrestha
School Supervisor
Ministry of Education and
Culture
HMG/Nepal
Kaiser Mahal Kantipath
Kathmandu

Pakistan

Dr R A Siyal
Deputy Educational Adviser
Ministry of Education
Islamabad

The Philippines

Dr Gloria Z Lasam
Regional Director of Region 01
Department of Education, Culture
and Sports
San Fernando
La Union

Sri Lanka

Mr S M D Perera
Director of Education
(Nonformal Education)
Education Ministry
Battaramulla

Syria

Mr Khaled Kattab
Ministry of Education
Research Department Room No. 270
P O Box 13135
Damascus